This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

ANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD U
STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFO
UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVER
LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRAR
VERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVERSITY LI
RARIES · STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES ·
ANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD U
STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFO
UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVER
LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRAR
VERSITY LIBRARIES · STANFORD UNIVERSITY LI
CUBBERLEY
STANFORD U
BRARIES ·

Alonzo Potter

Bishop of the Diocese of Pennsylvania

THE

Alonzo Potter

THE

AMERICAN

Journal of Education.

EDITED BY

HENRY BARNARD, LL.D.

VOLUME XVI.

NEW SERIES. VOLUME VI.

HARTFORD:

PUBLISHED BY HENRY BARNARD.

NEW YORK: F. C. BROWNELL. PHILADELPHIA: J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO
BOSTON: E. P. DUTTON.

LONDON. TRÜBNER & CO., 64 PATERNOSTER ROW.

1866.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR
LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY

A10288
C

THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 17.]

No. XLII.—MARCH, 1866.

CONTENTS.

PAGE.

PORTRAIT OF RT. REV. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., LL. D., ... 1

I. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE, ... 5

1. Elementary Schools, ... 8

Historical Development from 1621 to 1864, ... 8

Present System—Organization—Internal Economy, ... 22

II. THE NATURE AND VALUE OF EDUCATION, ... 33

A Prize Essay on (1) Physical, (2.) Intellectual, (3.) Moral Education, ... 33

III. THE DIGNITY OF THE SCHOOLMASTER'S WORK, ... 65

A paper designed for the Argentine Confederation by Senor D. P. Sarmiento, ... 65

IV. DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, ... 75

LABORS OF REV. SAMUEL READ HALL FROM 1833 TO 1840, ... 75

LABORS OF JAMES G. CARTER IN BEHALF OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS, 77

Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers—February, 1825, ... 77

Memorial to the Legislature of Massachusetts, by James G. Carter, 1826, ... 86

Report by W. B. Calhoun of Select Committee of Legislature, on Memorial, 1827, ... 88

INFLUENCE OF THE PRUSSIAN SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, ... 89

Report of Alexander H. Everett, and Statements by Dr. Julius, in 1836, ... 89

MEMORIAL OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION IN 1837, ... 93

MUNIFICENT OFFER OF EDMUND DWIGHT—LEGISLATION OF MASS., 1838 100

V. THE ORIGINAL FREE OR TOWN SCHOOL OF NEW ENGLAND 105

Characteristics found in the first Town School of Dorchester, ... 105

VI. GLIMPSES OF THE MEANS AND CONDITION OF AMERICAN EDUCATION PRIOR TO 1800, 109

1. North Carolina—Autobiography of Prof. Charles Caldwell, M. D., ... 109

2. South Carolina—Reported Conversation of General Marion on Free Schools, ... 117

3. Georgia—Barring out the Schoolmaster, a School Scene, ... 121

VII. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE. Described by those who went to them. *Third Article*, ... 126

Jeremiah Day—Willard Hall—A. Bronson Alcott—Henry Ward Beecher, ... 135

VIII. FEMALE EDUCATION AS IT WAS, ... 137

IX. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY, ... 141

X. HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, ... 149

Conventions and Associations in Illinois, ... 149

ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 156

Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 165

Portraits of Newton Bateman—Richard Edwards—J. V. N. Standish, ... 165

Ladies Education Society at Jacksonville, ... 171

VIRGINIA EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS, ... 173

XI. NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION, ... 177

Report to Convention of State Superintendents—February, 1865, ... 177

XII. ADVICE ON STUDIES AND CONDUCT—BY MEN EMINENT IN LETTERS AND AFFAIRS, 187

Letter of Lord Brougham—on the Training of a Public Speaker, ... 187

Letter of Thomas Carlyle—on Reading and Working, ... 191

I. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS AND STATISTICS.

THE Austrian Empire, as now constituted, embraces under one sovereign and one central government eighteen distinct provinces, besides a peculiarly organized Military Frontier. The total area is 248,551 square miles, with a population in 1857 of 35,918,988, including an active army of 579,989 men, distributed as shown by the following table:—

*Area, Population, and Religion of the different Provinces of the Austrian Empire in 1857.**

PROVINCES.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.		Religion.—Per Cent.			
		Aggregate.	Sq. M.	Catholics.	Greeks.	Protest.	Jews.
Upper Austria,	4,616	730,579	158	98.6	0.1	0.8	0.5
Lower Austria,	7,633	1,658,568	217	97.8	.....	2.2	.....
Salzburg,	2,764	146,769	35	99.9	.....	.....	.....
Styria,	8,664	1,056,773	122	99.5	.....	0.5	.....
Carinthia,	3,984	332,456	83	94.9	.....	5.1	.....
Carniola,	3,845	451,941	118	99.9	0.1	.....	.....
Littorale,	3,065	520,978	170	99.1	0.2	0.1	0.7
Tyrol & Vorarlburg,	11,084	851,016	77	99.9	.....	.....	0.1
Bohemia,	20,012	4,705,525	235	96.3	.....	1.9	1.8
Moravia,	8,560	1,867,094	218	95.0	.....	2.8	2.2
Silesia,	1,983	443,912	229	85.9	.....	13.4	0.7
Galicia,	30,115	4,597,470	153	89.6	.....	0.7	9.7
Bukowina,	4,021	456,920	114	11.8	78.8	2.9	6.5
Dalmatia,	4,928	404,499	82	81.4	18.6	.....	0.1
Venice,	9,198	2,446,056	266	99.8	.....	.....	0.2
Hungary,	81,025	9,900,785	122	60.7	15.3	21.8	2.2
Croatia & Slavonia,	7,054	876,009	124				
Transylvania,	23,078	1,926,727	83	21.9	43.7	31.6	2.9
Military Frontier,	12,922	1,064,922	83	.....	.....	.....	.....

The first eleven of these provinces belong to the German Confederacy, ranking first and having four out of seventy votes in the General Assembly. Previous to 1860 supreme control over all the provinces but Hungary, Croatia and Transylvania, which have always been to some extent independent, was vested in the Emperor. In that year, however, to remove the deep-seated dissatisfaction that had existed from long before the insurrection of 1848, the Emperor Francis Joseph I. granted a con-

* Lombardy, which was until 1849 attached to Venice, contains 8,313 square miles and a population of 3,039,055. The population of the Frontier is divided nearly equally between the Greek and Roman Catholic religions, with a small proportion of other sects.

ation to the non-Hungarian provinces, by which, with the later consions of 1861 and 1862, the Imperial Parliament, composed of a House Lords and a House of Representatives, (the latter appointed by the rect votes of the several provincial Diets from their own members,) has ie regulation of all subjects of legislation except those reserved especially to the Diets. The Hungarian States (Hungary, Croatia, and Transylvania) had at the same time their ancient constitutions re-affirmed to them. The Hungarian portion of the empire is so far distinct and in many respects peculiar that in the following Article its school system will receive separate consideration.

Three-fourths of the whole empire are mountainous or hilly, the chief exceptions being the elevated plateaus which form the provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, and the extensive plains and wastes that occupy nearly a third of Hungary. Its mineral wealth is unequaled in Europe, and mining has for centuries been a favorite pursuit. Its forests are more valuable and, except Russia, more extensive than those of any European country; the vegetable productions are extremely various, though agriculture generally is not far advanced; and in the production of wine Austria stands second only to France, producing annually about 680 millions of gallons, of which little is exported. Austria is also remarkable for the number of its distilleries and breweries.

The population is very unequally distributed, owing to the physical characteristics of the provinces, and also differs widely in its descent, language, customs, laws and religion. The Germans, numbering 7,889,-925, form the entire population of Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, and Northern Tyrol, and are found throughout the empire, but prevail most in Carinthia, Styria and Silesia (50–70 per cent.) and to a less extent (25–35 per cent.) in Bohemia and Moravia. The Slavonic race is, however, by far the most numerous, numbering 15,027,646, but divided into a number of tribes, so differing in language, religion, culture, and manners, that their preponderance in the empire is lost. The chief branches are the Northern Czechs, (6,132,742,) forming the bulk of the population of Moravia and Bohemia and two-fifths of that of Silesia; the Ruthenes, or Red Russians, (2,752,482,) forming over two-fifths of the population of Galicia and Bukowina; the Poles (2,159,648) in Silesia and Galicia; the southern Slovenes (1,183,533) in Carniola especially, but largely also in the Littorale, Styria, and Carinthia; the Croats (1,337,010) in the Littorale; the Servians (1,438,201,) the largely predominant race in Dalmatia; and the Bulgarians (24,030.) The Romanic races, numbering 5,632,-089, include in the west, the Italians (2,557,913) occupying the kingdom of Venice and southern Tyrol, and to some extent the Littorale and Dalmatia; the Ladins (14,498) in some valleys of the Tyrol; and the Frioils (416,725) about Gortz; and the eastern Wallachians (2,642,953,) who are found in Transylvania, Hungary, Bukowina, and the Frontier. The Magyars, or Hungarians, are located chiefly in Hungary and Transylvania. The remainder are Jews, (1,049,871,) most numerous in Galicia and

Bukowina; Gipsies, (146,100); Armenians, (16,131); Albanians, (3,175); and Greeks and Bohemians, (2,255.)

The number of languages or dialects exceeds twenty, but the German is the official language, and it is a significant fact that at a Panslavic congress held at Prague in 1848, the delegates of the different Slavic nationalities were unable to understand the different dialects of their own tongue and were forced to make the German the medium of communication. The Germans are the ruling race, not merely on account of the nationality of the ruling dynasty, but because German intelligence, culture, and industry prevail in all the different provinces, the Italian excepted. This diversity of nationality and language is one of the governing elements in the politics of the empire, and the consequent want of sympathy among the several nationalities and the general jealousy of the Slavonic and other races against the German, their hostility to any supposed attempt at "Germanization," and the effort to rid themselves of an oppressive feeling of inferiority to the Germans, have not merely complicated and embarrassed the school system of the empire, but have been the greatest and, indeed, the insurmountable difficulty in the way of a successful political reorganization.

Great differences exist in the state of civilization also of the masses of the people of the different provinces. The highest advancement is found in the Italian provinces, where agriculture is carried to the highest perfection, and among the inhabitants of the German provinces. In a lower grade are the Bohemians, Silesians, and Moravians who occupy almost exclusively the manufacturing provinces. The Slavonians of the south may be ranked with the Poles and Moravian inhabitants of Hungary, and above the rude and almost nomadic Magyars while the Dalmatians may be considered as standing on the lowest footing of civilization in Europe. South of the Danube the severity of the feudal system has long been nearly extinct, but much feudal power has remained until very recently in Bohemia and Moravia, still more in Galicia and most of all in the Hungarian provinces. Though equality of right exists in all subjects of the empire to hold property, without distinction of class or religion, yet a great portion of the land is rendered inalienable by entails, and landed properties are still possessed in large masses. Late patents have abolished serfdom entirely throughout the empire. The peasants live little on the country lands but are gathered into villages. In 1840 there were within the limits of the empire 72,135 villages, 2,545 market towns, and 782 cities. Each province is divided into a large number of 'circles' (*Kreise*,) each containing 100–150 square miles and having its proper officers and government, subordinate to that of the province. The lowest form of civil organization is the 'community' (*Gemeinde*), coordinate with which is the 'parish' (*Pfarrei*) as an ecclesiastical organization, existing wherever there is a church and [illegible]. For school purposes there also exists in later times the [illegible] (*Bezirk*), coincident generally with the ecclesiastical [illegible] (*Der* [illegible]) in the

Catholic, or superintendency (*Superintendential-bezirk*) in the Protestant church of Austria.

As to religion, the great bulk of the nation (23,968,686) is Roman Catholic; of United Greeks (holding the communion of Rome and acknowledging the supremacy of the Pope, but employing the Greek language in their services) there are about 3,609,244; of the Greek Church proper, 2,835,834; Protestants, of all denominations, 3,182,616; Jews, 1,049,871. At the accession of Joseph II. there were 2,024 Catholic convents, which in 1816 had been reduced to 800. Since then they have again increased. In 1842 there were 766 monasteries with 10,354 monks, and 157 nunneries containing 3,661 nuns. By the Concordat of September, 1855, the Catholic Church in Austria has become a power entirely independent of the temporal government. The *placitum regium* was abolished, thus rendering all decrees of the Pope valid and binding for the catholics of Austria without previous sanction of the government. The bishops are empowered to prohibit all books which they may deem pernicious, and have immediate control over the Catholic schools so far as relates to religious instruction; they may punish clergy and laymen for any violation of the regulations of the Church, and may establish any number of new monasteries; in short, all the limitations of the Papal power established by Joseph II. have been removed, and Austria has become emphatically the leading Catholic power in Europe.

There were in 1853, 249 newspapers and other periodical prints, of which only 77 were political. Fully half were in German, but all are fettered by conditions which render them quite worthless as organs of public opinion. Literary censorship is strictly enforced.

I. ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN NON-HUNGARIAN AUSTRIA.

1. *History.*

The history of education in Austria prior to the Reformation corresponds fully with its history in other states of Central Europe as given in previous Articles. Here, after the close of the struggle against the Reformers, the schools for higher instruction remained in the hands of the Jesuits, while primary instruction, confined principally to religious teaching and the catechism, was in the special charge of the Brotherhood of Christian Instruction. Not until the establishment of the order of Piarists in 1621, who in addition to the three usual monastic vows devoted themselves also to gratuitous instruction and soon became very numerous, were special schools endowed for the exclusive instruction of poor children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as the catechism. Besides these schools and the similar ones belonging to the female orders, there were also some parochial schools founded by the lords of the estates or by the communities, but until the year 1770 the government even of the Empress Maria Theresa, who was the first to take an active interest in the personal welfare of her subjects, had gone no farther than to enforce the church regulations respecting religious instruction, to per-

mit the teaching of the poor in other than the schools of the religious orders, and to adjust certain disagreements between the priests, the manorial lords, and the communities, respecting the engagement and dismissal of teachers. During the first thirty years after the Empress' accession to the throne in 1740, the condition of elementary instruction continued at the lowest. At Vienna, indeed, nearly one-fourth of the children between five and fifteen years of age were attending school, though teachers and text-books were often of the poorest description, and in the country generally but few of the children received any instruction whatever. Through the influence of Archbishop Sigismund (1753–1771) the condition of Upper Austria and Salzburg was somewhat improved, and in the Tyrol an attempt was made in 1747 to abolish the hedge schools and introduce a better system of schools and teaching. In Bohemia and Moravia, the suppression of the Protestant schools and continued persecution left but a miserable remnant, while in Silesia the Protestant schools were far in advance of those of the Catholics. In Galicia and Bukowina, not at that time attached to Austria, popular instruction was unknown.

Some attempts for the improvement and systematizing of elementary schools had, however, been made. Felbiger's method of instruction had been introduced into the orphan schools of Vienna, Gratz, and Klagenfurt, and in 1752 Rabstein's system was favorably received by the Empress, but its trial was prevented by the Seven Years War. In 1766 a "plan for the thorough reform of trivial* schools" was under discussion, modeled after that of Silesia, (then belonging to Prussia,) and was partially introduced by way of trial in the Tyrol, together with Felbiger's method. But the first effective impulse was given by a memorial of Count Firmian, Bishop of Passau, probably drawn up at the suggestion of the Empress herself, who, after the close of the Seven Years War, had devoted herself with new energy to the domestic improvement of her territories, and had already decreed, against an attempt of the clergy of Carinthia to possess themselves of the entire control of school appointments, that the management of the schools was and should remain a *State* matter, (*politicum.*) As a result of the memorial, it was decided in 1770 to create two "Boards of Education," for Upper and Lower Austria, which initiated a reform by establishing a normal school at Vienna. This school, under the management of Joseph Messmer, who was previously tutor of the Empress' children and at whose suggestion the Boards had been formed, contributed much to awaken a general interest throughout all the German and Slavonian provinces. A normal school fund was formed, a school-book publishing house was established, and the improved methods of teaching were introduced by teachers from the normal school, especially into the orphan and Piarist schools. Like measures were to some extent effected in other provinces. Kindermann opened a model school in Bohemia which

* For an explanation of the designations of the different grades of schools, see page 24

was largely attended; Count von Pergen urged with persistent zeal the assumption by the State of the care and control of both public and private instruction, the exclusion of the religious orders from the schools, the sole use of the German language in instruction, improved text-books, and more advanced female instruction; and Hägelin, who had been the most energetic member of the Boards of Education, effected some changes in the supervision and support of schools and in the course of study. The expulsion of the Jesuits in 1773 permitted the transfer of the funds of the order to educational endowments, facilitated the change of some of the too numerous "Latin schools" into public schools, and added new importance to the question of the assumption by the government of the whole subject of education. In the following year a State Board of Education was formed with power to act independently of every other authority and, at the desire of the Empress, Felbiger himself was called to Vienna to undertake the reorganization of the whole system. He soon effected the preparation of suitable school-books, devised a thorough course of normal instruction, and projected the first general school ordinance, that of Dec., 1774, many of the provisions of which are still in force.

By this ordinance it was required that wherever there was a parish church there should also be a trivial school, for instruction in religion, Biblical history, morality, reading, writing, and arithmetic, at the expense of the communities and manorial lords. In each circle there should be a "High school" sustained by the school fund, having 3–4 teachers and giving instruction in the elements of Latin, geography and history, written composition, arithmetic, and geometry. It recommended distinct female schools under female teachers and giving instruction in feminine employments. In the provincial capitals there should be "model schools," with a more extended course which should also embrace normal instruction. Like instruction should be given at all the larger high schools. Religious teaching was left to the clergy, and therefore the study of catechetics and methods of instruction was made a requisite for admission to the pastoral office. Of those already engaged in teaching some measure of normal training was required and new candidates, as well as private teachers, were to be subjected to a previous examination. The rights of appointment to schools were left unchanged. Fixed salaries were established for the model and high school teachers, and the more poorly paid country teachers were recommended to the aid of the lords and communities and were permitted to engage in other suitable employments. Text-books and methods of discipline and instruction were prescribed, in which Felbiger's peculiar tabular and simultaneous methods were prominent. School attendance continued from the sixth to the twelfth or thirteenth year, and was to be enforced with some strictness—in the country upon the younger children especially in summer and upon the older in winter—and Sunday-schools should be held for all over the age of twelve, not pupils in the

higher schools, at which attendance was required of apprentices until the close of their terms of service, and of others until their eighteenth or twentieth year. The immediate superintendence of the model and high schools was given to the principal teachers, and of the trivial schools to the pastors, while the financial and other business matters were in charge of a lay superintendent, appointed by the magistrate or lord. There was to be also a "circle superintendent," usually the dean, having the general supervision of the high and trivial schools of his district, receiving their reports and submitting them, with his own, to the chief official of the circle. Provision was also made for a provincial "School Board," which, among other duties, should have care of the school fund and of the general administration of the school ordinance. Finally, there was in Vienna the "General Board of Directors for Model Schools," which was the advising organ of the State Board of Education and to which the provincial boards reported for approval the proposed course of action in their several provinces.

School boards were soon formed and model schools opened in all the German and Slavonian provinces, and provision was made for school funds and improved text-books, the personal interest of the Empress encouraging a general spirit of self-sacrifice. To avoid prejudice, no taxes were permitted for school objects beyond a duty upon bequests and amusements, an increase of tuition fees was forbidden, corporations and the clergy were called upon for contributions, and the surplus revenues of ecclesiastical benefices and the property of the dissolved religious orders were freely drawn upon to supply the deficiencies of the school funds. The abolition of many gymnasiums supplied the buildings, means, and teachers for high schools, and convents were in some cases persuaded to their support, so that in 1776 there were already twenty schools of this character in Upper and Lower Austria, the Tyrol, and Carinthia. Well organized female schools existed in the convents of the Ursuline and other nuns, and one at Hall with lay teachers. The first Jewish school was opened at Görz in the same year.

In the establishment of trivial schools, the Empress took the lead in her own patrimonial territories and her example was followed by many of the ecclesiastical princes and large landed proprietors. Kindermann was especially active and successful in Bohemia, as chief superintendent, and was the first to effect a union of the common and industrial school systems. Under Felbiger's care an entirely new series of text-books was published in 1775, followed by a series of manuals for the use of the teachers. The catechisms were translated into the Italian, Bohemian, and Slavonian languages, and the text-books for the trivial schools into the Czech dialect. The annexation of Galicia in 1772 was followed by the establishment of a model school at Lemberg in 1775 and the formation of a school board in 1776, and the school ordinance was adapted by Felbiger to the civil and religious relations of the new kingdom with great skill and impartiality. Thus in the last ten years of the Empress'

., a system of popular instruction was created and made a part of State system of education, and introduced into all the German and ronian provinces of her Empire. In the last three years there were amined at the Vienna Normal School 923 public and 934 private achers; in 1780 there were 8,776 pupils in the public schools of Vienna, and 65,989 in the Bohemian schools, while throughout the Empire more than half the schools had been improved and the total number of scholars amounted to 200,000.

Joseph II. applied himself with energy to carrying out the political reforms initiated by the Empress Maria Theresa. Reversing the traditional policy of most of his predecessors, he granted full religious liberty to Protestants, discontinued the censorship of the press, abolished 900 convents, and destroyed the political power of the clergy. Soon after his accession to the throne in 1780, Felbiger was removed and Baron von Swieten was made president of the State Educational Board, and J. A. Gall, chief superintendent of the normal schools. Gall originated nearly all the reforms that were introduced during the reign of Joseph, the influence of Swieten being principally confined to securing the requisite legislation. The most important of these measures were those relating to compulsory attendance and school patronage. In addition to the ordinance of Maria Theresa that no child could be taken into service or enter a trade without a certificate of school attendance, an enrollment of all school children was now provided for, their non attendance was made punishable by fine, and with the Jews the prescribed instruction was made an indispensable prerequisite to a valid marriage. As the resources that had hitherto been made use of for increasing the school funds failed in many cases to suffice for the establishment of schools where they were needed, the Emperor decreed in 1787 that wherever the endowment and support of a school had not been already provided for, the "patronage" and consequent duty to establish and maintain a school in accordance with the school ordinances should immediately and permanently attach to the parish patron, to whom the right of presentation of the pastorate belonged. Between the school patron, the manorial lord, and the community, there was established a so-called "concurrence," and their respective rights and duties were strictly defined. By this means schools could now be located wherever there were 90–100 children within the circuit of half a league, and an under-teacher was allowed for every fifty children additional. All teachers were relieved from obligation to military service, and a minimum salary was fixed, any deficiency in which was to be supplied from the school fund. The "ciphering kreutzer" (additional charge for tuition in arithmetic) was forbidden to be exacted and poor children must be exempted from all tuition fees.

The Toleration Charter of 1781 introduced an entirely new feature, viz., non-Catholic schools, granting to Protestants and to members of the Greek Church the right to erect a church and school for every 500 per-

sons and to engage a properly trained native born teacher—with the limitation soon afterwards made that where Catholic schools already existed the establishment of new schools was unnecessary. Wherever a synagogue existed, also, a Jewish school was permitted and afterwards required, and the right was granted of admission to the normal schools. In other cases the children were obliged to attend the Catholic schools, relieved only from the prayers and religious instruction, and to avoid occasion of disturbance and ill-will, separate benches were to be set apart for their use. The interest taken by the Jews of Bohemia in the improvement of schools was acknowledged by the Emperor by appropriating certain taxes levied upon them to their educational benefit.

The energetic efforts of the Emperor, aided by the zealous coöperation of Gall, Kindermann, Mehoffer, and others, soon effected an extraordinary increase in the number and attendance of the schools. In Bohemia within ten years the number of scholars had quadrupled, and in Moravia and Silesia it had increased tenfold. But the instruction was still far from satisfactory. Gall had, indeed, improved to some extent the methods of Felbiger, and modified them by his own so-called Socratic system; but the far better systems that had recently arisen among the German pedagogists were wholly unknown; he had altered the text-books, and done away with many of the monotonous simultaneous exercises, yet the instruction of the schools still remained too uniform and mechanical, owing to the iron strictness of the rules by which it was governed. No methods of teaching were permitted but those taught in the normal schools, the text-books, even to the style of penmanship, and the order of lessons were rigidly prescribed. The regulation that required the use of the German language in the city schools and wherever possible elsewhere, was also found of very difficult execution, causing the common schools to be generally known as "German schools," and giving rise to much of the aversion to Germanism that prevailed among the Slavonians, though in fact no race shows so little capacity of resistance in its intercourse with other races, coalesces with them so easily, and is therefore so far from seeking their denationalization as the German.

It was required with equal stringency that no teacher should be employed without a previous examination, and on the part of candidates for the pastoral office a year of special instruction was necessary in pastoral divinity, pedagogics, catechetics, methods, and rural economy, and no pupil could be admitted to the novitiate of an order without a normal school certificate. Singing in the common schools was to be made the subject of especial care, and instruction in industrial occupations was urgently recommended. Bohemia took the lead in this direction, under Kindermann's influence, and the raising of silk, horticulture, and orcharding, and the rearing of bees received much attention. Efforts were continued to remove corporal punishment entirely from the schools, and Spendou, who succeeded Gall in 1790, devoted himself especially to this

oject. Plans were provided and rules laid down for the construction f school buildings, and finally "Circle School Boards" were created, :omposed of the deans of the circle and experienced teachers, who were commissioned to visit all the schools, learn their condition, attend the examinations, and make report in accordance with specified forms. These reports, commenced in 1788, were for a long time the basis of all general knowledge respecting the common schools of the empire.

Much still remained to be done at the time of the Emperor's death in 1790. His successor, Leopold II., appointed Baron von Martini in Swieten's place as president of the "Board for the Regulation of Instruction," which had been substituted for the previous State Board of Education. Martini's attention was principally directed to the improvement of the higher schools, but the chief enactment having reference to the common schools gave to the teachers a peculiar position in the administration of the schools and recognized the value of their knowledge and experience. By this ordinance the teachers of each normal school, either alone or with the gymnasial teachers of the same place, were united into a "Teachers' Association," which should have immediate direction of the schools within their limits, advise respecting the plan of instruction, the introduction of text-books, the maintenance of discipline, and the nomination of teachers, and contribute to the promotion of education by the publication of a scientific journal. The Association at the provincial capital elected from the retired members of the profession, or from their own number, a delegate to the "Educational Session," which had the supervision and control of all that related to study and instruction in the common schools throughout the province. The Session was subordinate to the provincial government, by which a "School Referee" was appointed for the decision of all such questions as did not require an appeal to the Privy Council of the empire.

But neither Teachers' Association nor Educational Session proved practically efficient in their operation, and the political movements that now began to disturb all Europe soon had their natural influence upon the development of popular culture in Austria. The Emperor Francis, who succeeded Leopold in 1792, consulted with his Chancellor, Count Rottenhann, upon the subject of the numerous current complaints against the existing school system. Rottenhann was opposed to conferring any form or measure of self government upon the teachers and would reserve to the State exclusively the decision of all educational questions, believing that the same line of policy should be pursued in the use and control of its intellectual resources as in the employment of any other of its possessions. He believed the true object of the trivial school to be "to make thoroughly good, tractable, and industrious men of the laboring classes of the people," and that much of the hostility manifested by the lower civil authorities, pastors, and even communities, would be allayed by restricting its scope. The teacherships could easily be filled by simple laboring men; tuition fees should be abolished; and instruc-

tion should be given in industrial employments. In the smaller cities the schools would need to differ little from those in the country, but in the larger cities there should be more advanced schools for pupils seeking more advanced instruction, and here tuition fees would serve to exclude the masses, while scholarships might be provided for such of the poor as were capable of benefiting by them.

Upon the basis of these opinions a Board of Educational Reform was created in 1795, with Rottenhann as president, and a membership of great ability, who, however, had generally more respect for the existing system than was shown by him. This Board was continued for several years and made numerous reports, but no decisive action was taken by the Emperor until 1802, when the Educational Sessions were abolished and the action of the Teachers' Associations was made merely advisory. Finally, in August, 1805, was published the "Constitution of the German Common Schools," which has for the most part continued since in force as the school law of Austria.

The principal provisions of this Constitution were the following:—The supervision of the trivial and country high schools rested first with the respective pastors, and secondly, with prominent schoolmen among the ecclesiastics, especially the deans of the district, who reported upon the instruction and discipline of the schools to the episcopal consistory and upon other subjects to the circle magistrate, and these in their turn to the provincial authorities. The district superintendent at the provincial capital was also chief superintendent and general referee for the province. The provincial authorities reported to the State Board of Education. Trivial schools were required in every parish, with a separation of the sexes, at least in the cities. There should be at least one high school in each circle, the higher class of which was open to girls, only where there were no special female schools. The high schools at the provincial capitals must be normal schools, besides which there should be female schools for the better classes, under the charge of female teachers. The trivial course was limited to the reading, writing, and understanding of the native language, with occasional instruction in grammar, the fundamental rules of arithmetic, religious instruction, vocal music, instruction in the duties of the laboring class, and in simple manual occupations. The teaching here was to be primarily directed to the cultivation and exercise of the memory and the teachers were restricted to the explanations given in the text-books. In the trivial schools of the larger towns a third class should be added for more extended instruction in grammar and arithmetic, as well as in the elements of geometry and mechanics. In the high schools, the third class should receive instruction in grammar and written composition in addition to the usual branches in city schools, while for the children of tradesmen and artisans there should be a fourth class, continuing two years, with a yet more extended course including geography and natural history. Trivial schools were required to have but one teacher, with assistants if necessary; high schools should have

as many teachers as classes, and normal or model schools a director in addition. Twenty hours of instruction per week were required, increased in the last half-year of the third class to twenty-five, and in the fourth class to thirty. In half-day schools the larger scholars should receive fifteen, and the younger eight hours. High school teachers must have received at least six months, and trivial school teachers three months, of normal instruction, but teachers' "certificates" were given them only after a year's trial and a subsequent examination. Like certificates of qualification were required of private teachers. The qualifications and duties of teachers were defined with great strictness, and the methods of appointment of teachers and school officers were carefully regulated. High school teachers and their families had the right of pension, and trivial school teachers could claim the aid of an assistant in case of incapacity from age or prolonged sickness. Instruction should be gratuitous to children of the poor and of soldiers in the army, and text-books should be supplied to them at the rate of one book for two scholars. The number of scholars under a single teacher could not exceed 80–100, or twice this number in half-day schools, but no new school could be established unless plainly necessary and when the community could defray most of the expense. Plans to be followed in their erection were provided; the school furniture should be supplied by the patron, but the terms of concurrence between the patron, the territorial lord, and the community remained as before respecting the other expenses. No change was made in the previous regulations respecting the Protestant and Jewish schools, similar qualifications being required of the teachers, and the Jewish schools remaining wholly under Catholic superintendence.

Spendou was appointed School Referee in connection with the newly organized State Board of Education. In 1808 the archbishops and bishops were required to so far watch over the common schools as to secure purity of religious instruction to the Catholic children, but until 1834 no essential modification was made in this school code of 1804. Among the principal changes were a slight improvement in the pensions, salaries, and relations of the teachers, and their recognition as State servants of the class of "*honoratiores*," for which, however, the carrying on of any trade was forbidden. Increased care and strictness were required in the examination and choice of teachers, and the normal course for teachers of the trivial schools was extended to six months; three years' service was required prior to the permanent settlement of a normal or high school teacher, and no foreigner could be admitted to any position. Competitive examinations were introduced for teacherships of drawing, penmanship, and other branches of the fourth class. The number of schools was also increased by permitting branch (*excurrendo*) schools, attended as often as necessary by teachers who still retained connection with the regular schools, and the organization of the adult schools was rendered more perfect. Yet more stringent measures were taken to se-

cure due religious instruction, no non-Catholic teacher could be intrusted with the instruction of Catholic children, and, on the other hand, the Protestant and Greek schools were placed under a superintendence distinct from that of the Catholic schools. Private schools were discouraged by numerous restrictions.

During the same period the circle of operation of the school laws became largely extended and now included the Tyrol, Salzburg, Lombardy, the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and the Military Frontier. For the Tyrol, which was restored to Austria in [illegible], the few changes required in the law arose chiefly from the absence of female teachers. In Salzburg, which had been in the possession of Austria from [illegible] to [illegible] and was restored to her in [illegible], the reigning prince assumed the patronage of all the schools with but four or five exceptions. Lombardy, first acquired in [illegible] and again in [illegible], received in [illegible] a special school ordinance modeled after the School Constitution. For Lombardy* and Venice a school law was issued in [illegible], differing essentially from the School Constitution in several respects—not making the payment of parents, but placing the burden of the normal schools entirely upon the communities; classing the high schools with the gymnasiums and placing them under similar regulations; changing the form of the higher grades of superintendence; making instruction wholly gratuitous; and requiring in the schools an entire separation of the sexes. In the Military Frontier the School Constitution was immediately introduced, the military organization being still preserved in the system of superintendence.

The reign of Ferdinand I. (1835–1848) was marked by no attempt at radical change in the school system. A normal school for female teachers was established at Vienna; competitive written examinations were required of candidates for all vacant teacherships; [illegible] were taken for the better instruction of factory operatives; adult instruction was encour-

---

* Lombardy, during the reign of Maria Theresa, was so far independent of the Austrian [illegible] that little was done towards the establishment of a system of common education, and though an Educational Board was formed in [illegible] a plan of school regulations proposed, religious orders maintained, and their revenues applied to educational purposes, [illegible] more effective when the Austrian authority was extinguished in [illegible]. The Venetian Lombardy, which succeeded, was fully occupied with other questions. The Republic of Lombardy was soon [illegible], however, the French Code of Legislation was substituted in [illegible] which previously in the short sway of Austria, [illegible], in some [illegible] in the restoration of the authority in [illegible] gratuitous popular [illegible] Through the energy of the new government, within four years [illegible] were established, with an attendance of [illegible] scholars.

* The Military Frontier is a set of territory of very irregular [illegible] in [illegible] along the Turkish border, constituted as a means of defense against the Turks, for [illegible] purposes, and for the prevention of smuggling. The constitution is very [illegible] years of age serve in service and the military officers [illegible] in [illegible]. The [illegible] from the Crown and [illegible] the maintenance the [illegible] of property belonging [illegible]. The [illegible] Lemberg and various German schools [illegible] by the Military Board for German instruction. In [illegible] the management [illegible] and greatly [illegible] during the previous years was transferred to the [illegible] Lemberg for the sake of uniformity of action and uniform progress with the other provinces.

aged; and the use of text-books in the different languages was permitted. During this period, however, the State authorities were less energetic in their efforts in behalf of education than had been the case during the previous reigns. The personal interests of the patrons and landed proprietors were often permitted to outweigh more important public considerations. There still remained many districts of considerable extent without schools, and where they existed many were but half-day schools. Yet in the nineteen years from 1828 to 1847 the number of schools and scholars had largely increased. The number of high schools had grown from 261 to 333; of trivial schools, from 14,748 to 16,803; of these, the schools exclusively for girls had increased from 1,380 to 2,558; of teachers and assistants, from 21,873 to 27,656; of male pupils, from 840,307 to 1,012,516; and of female, from 601,655 to 802,836. The Sunday, or adult, schools had in the same time increased from 8,867 to 11,432, with an increase of 118,328 in the attendance. The use of the local languages had gradually become more prevalent in the schools in consequence of the increased influence of the non-German nationalities. Still in many sections too great a preference was given to the German, and in Galicia to the Polish. The scanty course of the trivial schools had not been extended, and the efficiency of schools of every grade was restricted by the want of coöperation among the teachers and of a thoroughly systematic plan of instruction, and by the forced adherence to old and defective text-books. Moreover, the six months' course of normal training that was required could be, at the best, but of little benefit, and the custom of selecting teachers upon other considerations than fitness for the office withdrew from the profession that respect which is indispensable to success. The schools thus gained a reputation even worse than they actually merited. Their condition was made the subject of much pamphlet discussion between the years 1840 and 1847.*

The revolution of 1848 that preceded the reformation of Austria under Francis Joseph I., opened a new era in the history of education within its limits. The high importance of popular instruction was recognized in the midst of the revolution by the creation of a special Ministry of Instruction, with Baron von Sommaruga at its head. He resigned his position in July of the same year, but Baron von Feuchtersleben continued Secretary of the Board and prepared a plan for the reorganization of the entire educational system. Asserting that no exertion or sacrifice could

* The condition of the Vienna schools in 1847 shows that there was good ground for complaint. Besides five high schools, there were then twelve three-class and fifty-two two-class trivial schools, and three female schools. Nearly half of the trivial schools occupied hired and mostly unsuitable pre n ses, often with 3–7 apartments under the charge of a single teacher, each room having an average of eighty-eight pupils. The teacher was chiefly occupied with the general management of the school, from which he sometimes received an income of 2,000 florins, committing the instruction entirely to assistants, hired at a small salary of 4–12 fl. per month, who were also obliged to give instruction out of school hours in order to increase his receipts. The sexes were seldom separated, scholars were received at any time, and school apparatus was almost entirely wanting. The qualifications of those engaged in teaching were only such as were required of trivial school teachers.

be too great to secure to all that degree of education without which the general right of suffrage would be an absurdity, the following measures were proposed for the increase and improvement of schools, their more judicious and careful supervision, and the higher training and more favorable position of teachers. It was proposed that the support of the common schools should rest upon the communities, all contributions that still remained obligatory upon other parties being paid into the treasury of the community, and the province and State rendering assistance where necessary. No tuition fees should be exacted in the country schools, and all instruction should be exclusively in the native language. Instruction should be given in the knowledge of natural objects, of man, and especially of their native land; also in singing and in physical exercises. Every trivial school should include a third class, with the necessary teachers, and the pastor should be permitted to teach other branches besides religion. In every province there should be a normal school for teachers, with a two or three years' course, to be gradually organized into a Teachers' Seminary. There should also be in each province a cheap school-journal, and the teachers of every city and school-district should, with the pastors, hold a convention at least semi-annually. Every school should be provided with a small library and the necessary apparatus for instruction. The salaries should be fixed and sufficient to enable the teacher to give all his attention to his duties as teacher and chorister, and the communities should make provision for pensions, to which the teachers should contribute. The schools should be superintended by a school committee composed of the pastor and teachers and an equal number from the community, over whom should be the circle or capital school inspector, with three colleagues, also subordinate to the provincial School Council, with which should rest the location of the teachers.

To carry these measures to some extent into immediate execution, regulations were made in September, 1848, that the native languages only should be used in instruction, that the admission and promotion of scholars should occur but at one fixed period annually, that the teachers should select their own methods, that the pastor should provide for the Sunday instruction of adults in religion, and that in the country instruction should be given in orcharding. The conditions of admission to the normal schools were fixed and the course limited temporarily to one year, and numerous conferences were at once organized among the teachers.

In November, 1848, Feuchtersleben was removed and Baron von Helfert received the Secretaryship, who for eleven years had charge of the administration of educational affairs, under the new Minister of Instruction, Count Thun. Many reforms were introduced during this period which will be more fully detailed in the following section. Among them was, in 1849, the reëstablishment provisionally of the terms of the previous "concurrence," which was made necessary by the disturbed relations of the parties and their unwillingness in many cases to bear

their respective shares of the expenses, and appropriations were also made by the Government for the increase of teachers' salaries, accompanied, however, with the denial that the State could be expected to assume the expense of public instruction. Definite regulations were made respecting the organization of new school-districts, and the establishment of special classes of imperfectly organized (irregular) schools, such as local circumstances not unfrequently made necessary. Half-day schools were for the most part abolished; the condition of teachers, and especially of assistant teachers, was improved; and pensions for teachers and their families were strongly insisted upon. The normal school course was increased to two years, and special normal instructors were provided. The fourth class of the high schools was transferred to the burgher schools, while the change of trivial schools into three-class parochial high schools was commenced at Vienna and extended into other provinces. Afterwards, as the high schools were organized into four classes, three classes were required in the trivial schools. The separation of the sexes was required in the higher classes of the high schools, at least, and the establishment of distinct female schools was especially favored. The instruction of adults was more carefully regulated, attendance was made more obligatory, and provision was made for the compensation of the teachers. Private schools were relieved from many restrictions that custom had laid upon them, but they were still under strict government control. The normal schools were gradually improved, a course of training for female teachers and for teachers of burgher schools was introduced, and scholarships were established for the benefit of poor pupils. The employment of teachers who had received no preparatory training, though still at times necessary, had become less frequent.

The general usefulness of the German language was recognized by the Government, and its introduction was recommended, especially into the high schools. It also favored joint instruction in several languages in the schools and made the necessary rules for its regulation. The old text-books were removed and new ones prepared, not only in the German language but in the Bohemian, Polish, Ruthenic, Slovenic, Croatian, Servian, Italian, Romaic, and Magyar, and other books for German instruction in the non-German schools and for the special use of the Protestant and Jewish sects.

The greater influence of the community in the control of the school, as provided for in Feuchtersleben's plan, was considered a matter of less importance than the determination of its duty in relation to the support of the school. The participation of its representatives was limited almost entirely to the necessary action in securing this support, the direction of the school being still exercised by the local school superintendent, which office had been continued from the earliest period. The "concurrence," which was continued in force provisionally for some years, was gradually modified in favor of the lords of the estates, the increased obligations of the communities being in a measure counterbalanced by the improved rights of property consequent upon the new relations now established.

The influence, upon the other hand, of the civil authorities of the district, of the circle, and of the province, (of the former, especially after its reorganization in 1849 and 1853,) had continually increased in the administration of the schools, though various changes were made in the form and character of their action. But the ecclesiastical superintendence over the schools was still carefully preserved, the pastor being not merely the immediate overseer of the school, but having a voice in the selection of the local school superintendent, and in certain cases even the right of rejection.

On the 18th of August, 1855, however, the Concordat with the Pope was ratified, by which the superintendence of the schools was placed more completely in the hands of the Church, by the following provisions:—"The instruction of Catholic youth, in all public as well as non-public schools, shall be throughout in accordance with the teachings of the Catholic religion; the Bishops, by virtue of their pastoral office, shall control religious instruction in all public and non-public institutions of learning, and watch thereover carefully, that there may be nothing in any branch of instruction that shall run counter to the Catholic faith and to moral purity. No one shall give religious instruction in any form whatever for a public or non-public institution, unless he shall have received from the bishop of the diocese commission and authority therefor, which the bishop is at liberty to recall if he deem it advisable. All teachers for schools designed for Catholics are placed under the superintendence of the Church. The Chief School Superintendent of the diocese is to be appointed by His Majesty from those nominated by the Bishop. If, in any of the said schools, sufficient provision is not made for religious instruction, the Bishop is at liberty to appoint a priest for the instruction of the scholars in the rudiments of the faith. The faith and morals of the teacher, desiring engagement, must be spotless, and whoever errs from the right path shall be removed from his position."

When a feeling of the importance of popular education had once taken firm hold of the mind of the people and when the treadmill of the ancient trinity of school studies was once abandoned, the coöperation of the communities and their contributions to school objects grew more zealous and abundant. The provincial capitals and many of the larger cities have taken pride in changing their trivial to high schools and in extending the latter by means of burgher schools, and the Jewish districts of Bohemia have emulated each other in establishing high schools of their own. In the Tyrol, where elementary instruction has always been the chief object of attention, effort was especially directed to the opening of "*Stobschulen*" in localities where the children (often not more than from five to fifteen in number) were prevented in winter from attending the parochial schools, and a society was formed for the assistance and support of poor children. Throughout the provinces almost the entire increase of the schools and their improvement have been effected without assistance from the already overburdened State treasury, and with many

instances of liberality on the part of individuals and of self-sacrifice even by many of the poorer communities.

The number also of capable teachers has greatly and rapidly increased. Among those now deceased have been Ferdinand Schubert, Director of the Vienna Normal School, brother of the noted composer and a teacher of fifty years' experience; John Strehl, his successor in the Normal School, the excellence of whose text-books in arithmetic has been long acknowledged; Francis Hermann, who restored to the Normal School at Prague the high reputation enjoyed by it under Felbiger and Kindermann, and whose books of methods are widely used; and Vincent Splawinski, Principal of the Normal School at Cracow. A school literature has arisen, Teachers' Associations have exerted their beneficial influence, school libraries have been formed, school instruction has become more mild and pleasant, and the schools have gained the respect and regard of the people.

In October, 1860, the Ministry of Instruction was dissolved and its duties transferred to the newly created Department of State, at the head of which Chevalier de Schmerling still continues. In 1862 Helfert exhibited at Vienna, and afterwards at the World's Fair at London, a rare collection of all the objects that could aid in forming a just estimate of what had been effected by the Empire in the field of popular education—embracing ground plans and elevations of school buildings, school furniture, books, apparatus, and all the appliances and requisites of instruction actually employed in the schools, the written exercises of the scholars, and other material showing the results of instruction. At the close of the first session of the Imperial Parliament (June, 1863) still farther changes were made in the school administration, Baron von Lewinski being appointed to Helfert's position, and a celebrated teacher of the Prague University, Chevalier Hasner, being placed at the head of the newly constituted Board of Education.

2. *Present System and Condition of Schools.*

Such a degree of uniformity exists in the relations of the common schools of the non-Hungarian provinces of the Empire, notwithstanding many sectional peculiarities, that a somewhat systematic form may be given to a general description of their present condition. Of the following sections, numbers 1–6 will give the more general principles of the school system, 7–27 the most important details of its operation, and 28–31 an account of the burgher schools, teachers' seminaries, and other closely allied subjects.

1. *Classes of Schools and their Distribution.*—The common schools are divided into *trivial* and *high* schools. The trivial, or lower elementary schools, are "regular" when they are permanently organized in strict accordance with legal requirements, and are either "parochial" schools, which should exist in every parish, or "branch" schools, whose establishment is necessitated by the residence of considerable numbers of

children at a distance from the parochial schools. Besides these there are various kinds of more or less imperfectly organized or "irregular" schools, such as necessity or convenience may require. The high, or higher elementary schools, differ from the trivial in having a more extended course of instruction to supply the more advanced wants of the larger communities, and also to prepare for admission to the gymnasium or real school. They are distinguished as "high schools" proper, which hold a higher rank and share in special privileges, or as "parochial high schools," which aside from a more extended course of study remain still in the position of trivial schools.

At the capital of each province there is a "normal" or "model high school," so conducted, with such apparatus of instruction and such a grade of teachers, as to serve as a pattern for all the common schools of the province. With this school there is always connected a teachers' seminary, and wherever these seminaries are attached to other high schools the same name is given to them. Most of the trivial schools and not a few of the parochial high schools are attended by children of both sexes and are hence called "mixed" schools, the children being taught either in separate divisions or in distinct apartments. In the fourth class of the high school the sexes are always organized in wholly distinct divisions.

To every school, regular or irregular, a definite district is assigned, the children within which limits are "due" to the school. In some provinces much territory still remains not thus assigned, in consequence of the remoteness of the established schools and the difficulties of intercourse. Thus in Bukowina nearly one-half of the population, in Galicia nearly a third, in the Littorale nearly a fifth, in Dalmatia and Carniola a sixth, and a small portion also in Styria and Carinthia, are without schools and dependent upon such instruction as the pastors can give in connection with their religious teaching. In Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, the schools are the most favorably distributed, averaging one school to 5½ square miles, and with an average population of about 1,200 to each school. In Upper and Lower Austria the influence of Vienna is seen in increasing the population to 1,200–1,400, while owing to the extent of mountainous region the area also to each school increases to 7–10 square miles. In the Tyrol, with its high mountains and rugged valleys, the population diminishes to less than 500 to each school, and while there is still one school to each seven miles of territory, yet the occupations of the children often prevent their attendance for more than half of the year. In the mountainous provinces of Salzburg and Carinthia, on the other hand, the poverty of many of the communities reduces the number of schools to one in from fifteen to twenty square miles. In Galicia nearly half the schools are irregular, and this province, together with Bukowina and Dalmatia, are the most poorly provided with schools of any portion of non-Hungarian Austria, notwithstanding the great improvement that has been effected within a very recent period.

2. *Sectarian Character.*—Every school is essentially sectarian, with respect alike to its scholars, teachers, and superintendence, and schools attended by children of different religions are only permissible generally as a last resort and with the consent of the ecclesiastical authorities. Yet Protestant and Jewish children, where there is no school of their own to which they can be assigned, are obliged to attend the nearest Catholic school, and in want of any such, Jewish children attend the nearest Protestant or Greek school, attendance at school prayers and religious instruction being, of course, dispensed with. In like manner Protestant schools are attended by Catholic children. Aside from the Jews, each sect has nearly its proportionate number of schools; in Salzburg, Carniola, and the Tyrol, the Protestant population is too much scattered for the establishment of distinct schools, while in Upper Austria, Carinthia, and Galicia, and partially also in the Littorale and Styria, the Protestants have every where schools of their own, more in number than their ratio of the population would require, as in many cases the schools are necessarily small. In Bohemia and Moravia much of the Protestant population is scattered, and in Bukowina and Galicia their schools are mostly confined to the German and Hungarian colonies. The number of schools belonging to the Eastern Church is proportionately less, as this sect has but recently awakened to the importance of education. Until 1848, moreover, the Greek schools of Bukowina were under the control of the Catholic consistory, and their gradual transfer since into the hands of their own authorities has greatly promoted their increase.

3. *Effect of Nationality.*—The German race, wherever found within the Empire, is more careful than any other to take advantage of the means of public instruction afforded to its youth, and on the easternmost borders of Central European civilization the German colonists are still the principal supporters of the public schools. Towards the South the influence of this element gives place to that of the Italian. Among the branches of the great Slavonian family the Czechish-Moravian has exerted the greatest influence upon the primary schools, followed by the Poles, and these again by the Slavenes, the Croats, the Ruthenes, and the Servians.

4. *Compulsory Attendance.*—The existence of a regular school makes obligatory the attendance of all children within its limits between the ages of six and twelve years, unless they have entered a higher institution or receive equivalent instruction at home. This obligation is not only general, but special to the school of the district within which the child resides, and, on the other hand, admission can not be denied to any child, no previous preparation can be required, nor can any degree of progress be made a condition of his continuance. In the larger cities transfer to other than the proper school requires only the consent of the school superintendent. Usually the coöperation of those immediately intrusted with the management of the school secures the required attend-

ance. Should this fail, the aid of the magistrate, and, in extreme cases, of the provincial authorities may be called upon, who may place the children at school and visit the parents with fine or imprisonment. Such fines go to the benefit of the school or to the provincial school fund. Yet stringent measures can be resorted to only in cases of obstinacy or ill-will. A proper maintenance of the school is made a prior condition to constant attendance, and the removal as far as possible of hindrances in the way of attendance must precede any compulsory measures for its enforcement. Numerous ordinances have been passed upon this subject, regulating the occupations of children, forbidding their employment in factories until nine years of age and after at least one year's attendance at school, requiring for such children the establishment of special evening schools, &c.

5. *Support of Schools.*—The support of the trivial school is obligatory first of all upon the school community—that is, upon the inhabitants of the district for which the school is designed; and all the necessary expenses consequent upon its continuance and improvement fall upon the several members of the community according to their just quotas, and the payment may be compulsorily enforced. Until very recently the school patron shared with the community in some portion of these expenses. In the erection of new schools, until 1848, the patron, the lord of the estate, and the community, were united—the landed proprietor in general providing the land and materials, the patron paying the workmen engaged in the erection and fitting up, and the community supplying other labor. Subsequent repairs, the rent of buildings for temporary use, fuel, &c., were also a charge on the three parties jointly. Upon the abolition of feudal relations the landed proprietor was relieved from responsibility, except as a member of the community to the extent of his tax assessment within its limits. The relations of the patron and the school remained less simply defined, and until the total abolition of school patronage, his share in other expenses than those which were most urgent and usual was left to mutual agreement. This naturally led in very many cases to long protracted negotiations and to many inconveniences, until the latest phase of constitutional development within the Empire brought with it relief. In 1863 the Government proposed to the provincial diets a law for the abolition of patronage, which has been concurred in by nearly all the provinces so far as to do away with the relation except where it originated in an endowment or rested upon some like ground, and even in such cases the extent of liability, if not already expressly fixed, was limited to one-fourth of the expenses, and the duties previously attaching to the patronage were transferred to the community.

Assistance is rendered from the provincial school funds only temporarily to such regular and authorized schools as can not otherwise be maintained, or permanently in case of the normal and model schools, which are designed for a general purpose and not merely to meet the necessities

of a community. The whole expense of these schools, both of establishment and maintenance, are defrayed from the fund unless they at the same time fill the place of parochial schools, in which case the fund advances but one-third or one-half of the expense, according as the institution is organized with three or four classes. Contributions are also made from the funds to supply the deficiencies in the salaries of the more poorly paid teachers.

The receipts and expenditures of the several school funds in 1864 are given in a subsequent page. Of these receipts, about 210,000 fl. consisted of interest upon State and private bonds; 50,000 fl., of tuition fees at the high schools, and some others—77,000 fl. from other funds, from corporations, and private persons—and 48,000 fl. from bequests and taxes upon legacies. Of the expenditures, above 630,000 fl. were employed in the payment of the salaries and pensions of teachers. The excess of the expenditures above the receipts, amounting in 1864 to 396,768 fl., is paid from the National Treasury. Several of the provincial diets also made considerable appropriations in 1863 for the improvement of the condition of teachers, and in 1864 still more was done. It is roughly estimated that the total expenditure by the State and provincial governments, by communities and private persons, and from funds and endowments, for common school purposes, amounted in 1864 to 10,000,000 fl. The expenditures of the city of Vienna alone amounted in 1862 to above 450,000 fl., of which 217,000 fl. were paid to teachers, and 157,000 fl. for new school and gymnasium buildings.

6. *School Superintendence.* In general, the supervision of the internal affairs of the schools rests with the ecclesiastical authorities, while the care of its financial and material interests is intrusted to secular officials, both agencies coöperating and assisting each other as far as possible. The immediate oversight is committed, by Church and State alike, to the local pastor, of whatever creed, whose duty it is to see that the instruction and discipline of the school are what they should be, to observe the conduct and habits of the teacher and the attendance of the pupils, and to advance as he is able the school and its interests. He has, however, no authority beyond that of advice, admonition, and reprimand. The community is represented by the local school superintendent, who watches over the condition of the school buildings and furniture, the observance of the prescribed school hours and scheme of lessons, the public behavior of the teacher, the treatment and conduct of the scholars and their regularity of attendance, and the payment of all dues to the teachers, and reports to the proper authorities all complaints and offenses. Schools belonging to religious orders are under the immediate care of the heads of the societies. High schools which are not also parochial schools are left to the director, with the general supervision of the pastor. Local funds and endowment are under the charge of the local magistrate with the pastor and superintendent, unless their management was otherwise provided for by the founders.

All the common schools within a deanery, superintendency, or like ecclesiastical jurisdiction, are subject to the supervision of the "school-district superintendent," who is usually the dean (or corresponding Protestant or Greek official) and in the Catholic districts has also the oversight of the Jewish schools, which oversight is, however, somewhat of a negative character and limited to the methods, management, and moral conduct of the teacher. He decides such questions as may be brought before him, has an important influence in the appointment of teachers, tests their efficiency by regular annual visits, and examines into such faults in the schools of his district as may be brought to his notice. His visits are publicly announced, and all the subordinate school officers and others are notified and expected to be present. He reports the results with his suggestions, making mention of those teachers and pastors who are especially energetic and faithful. He has also to preside over the teachers' conferences of his district. He is aided and sustained by the presiding civil official of the district, who has charge also of all the external affairs of the schools, should urge negligent communities and individuals to the performance of their duties, supply means for the enforcement of compulsory measures, and inform himself as far as possible of the condition of the schools.

The Catholic schools of a diocese and the Protestant schools of a higher character are under the superior supervision of the bishop and his consistory and of the superintendent respectively, acting in the name of both Church and State. The influence of the bishop upon religious instruction and the character and choice of school-books, and in the training of teachers of religion, attaches to his clerical position; his authority in the choice of district superintendents, and his participation in the visitation of schools, in the organization of teachers' seminaries, and in the appointment of teachers are given him by law. The emperor also appoints a member of the chapter, on nomination of the bishop, as "chief superintendent" for the Catholic schools, whose approval is necessary to the ratification of the proceedings upon school matters. In case of disagreement, appeal may be made to the provincial authorities. He has also immediate supervision of the schools in the place of episcopal residence, and the general right of visitation in extraordinary cases.

The highest administrative school authority within the province is the provincial government. It should see that the school duties of subordinate officials are faithfully performed, confirms the appointments of district superintendents, the plan of instruction in the teachers' seminaries, and the location of such teachers as are not appointed directly by itself or by the bishop, determines the language to be used in instruction, and gives permission for the establishment of new trivial schools and for their promotion to high schools. Its authority is exercised by a provincial council or, appointed as "Educational Referee," with whom for the management of what relates purely to instruction, there is associated another councilor as "Common School Inspector" for the province,

whose duty it is to draw up opinions, reports, and propositions respecting the schools and to prepare himself for this by regular journeys of inspection, investigating the condition of every school and giving especial and constant attention to the teachers' seminaries and teachers' conferences. His report receives the immediate attention of the government and upon subjects within the sphere of his superintendence no action can be taken contrary to his opinion without appeal in each case to the State Department.

Finally, the supreme control of the entire school system of the non-Hungarian provinces is conducted by the State Department of Worship and Instruction, which prepares all general school laws, determines the organization of all public schools, regulates their distribution into school-districts, has the appointment and nomination of certain school officials, controls the whole school-book system, and has the oversight of the school funds. A "Council of Instruction" is attached to the Department, which has simply advisory oversight of all educational bills and ordinances, the erection, change, or abolition of schools, school-books and means of teaching, examines the reports of the school councilors and takes the initiative in all educational measures.

In the Military Frontier the schools are wholly under the military superintendence of the company, regiment, and battalion commands, over whom are the two general commanders at Agram and Temesvar, who report immediately to the War Department at Vienna. All the general ordinances of the Empire relating to the course of study and school-books, apply equally to this territory.

The whole system of Catholic schools is thus under the supervision of 11,076 pastors, 988 district superintendents, and 45 bishops and their consistories; the Greek schools are under 133 pastors, 22 district superintendents, and 2 bishops; the Protestant schools are under 191 pastors, 23 district superintendents, and 7 superintendents.

7. *School Buildings.* The "School Constitution" contains precise instructions respecting the construction of school-houses, requiring for each pupil seven and a half square feet of floor surface, three and a quarter feet of bench room, with a height of at least ten feet, a passage of two and a half feet between the benches, and a raised platform for the teacher, lighted from the left side. A vegetable garden and orchard should be attached to the country schools if possible. In Vienna, in view of the probable outlay of 4,000,000 fl. for buildings within the next twenty years, the most approved principles of school architecture have been followed in the prescribed plans, by which the parochial high schools must be furnished with at least eight school-rooms, none above the second story, not facing noisy streets, nor exposed to storms. Each room must contain from 450 to 700 square feet, suitably lighted and ventilated. There is also an examination-hall twice as large, a gymnasial hall on the ground floor of 900 feet area, and a gymnasial ground for summer exercises. The building should also include rooms for the residence of the principal

teacher. When the edifice is intended for two schools, separate passages and stairways are provided for the boys and girls, and an abundant supply of water should always be furnished for drinking and other uses.

The use of apartments in a private house for the purposes of a regular school is no longer permitted. The erection and maintenance of suitable buildings is the duty of the district authorities. More recently a local committee prepare the plans, specifications and estimates, which are submitted to the district authorities, or in more important cases to the circle or provincial authorities, and a committee is also appointed for the direction of the work. Where the recent laws abolishing the school patronage have gone into force, the community have more immediate control and only a general oversight rests with the district authorities.

8. *Grades of Teachers.* The trivial school, and also generally the parochial high school, is under a single "teacher," assisted, if necessary, by "under-teachers," who board in his family, and can marry only with the consent of certain of the higher school authorities. In the model school the teacher is designated as the "model teacher." The high school is under a "director," with as many teachers as classes, who may also receive the title of "professor." The parochial high schools of the city of Vienna rank in this respect nearly with the high schools proper, the instructors being known as "principals" and teachers. Directors and teachers of high and trivial schools have the privileges of State officials of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh rank respectively, wear the corresponding uniform, and claim certain recognitions of rank and position. Under-teachers are only relieved from military service. In the high schools a "catechist" is always employed for religious instruction, who is free from pastoral duties. In the female schools there is a similar system of female teachers and assistants, though, with the exception of the convent schools which may also be under the charge of male directors, some branches and even whole classes are often confided to male teachers. The Vienna authorities have declared in favor of placing the public female schools under male teachers exclusively.

9. *Election of Teachers.* Candidates for schools must have the certificates of their final school examination, or the evidence of a dispensation from it, and must give satisfactory evidence of their religious sentiments, moral character, and success if previously in service. It is necessary that they should be free from physical infirmity, be under forty years of age, be citizens of Austria, and have no relations or connections engaged at the same school. The second and third disqualifications may be avoided by dispensations from the State Department or from the emperor, and in respect to the last, trivial school teachers may have their sons as assistants.

In case of a vacancy in a trivial school, six weeks public notice is given by the bishop, the applications of the candidates are examined by the district superintendent, and such as are found satisfactory are reported by him to the patron, where such exists, who must make an unconditional

selection within four weeks. This choice is approved by the bishop, and concurred in by the superintendent, or a new choice is made. Where school patronage does not exist, the superintendent selects the candidate, paying due regard to the opinion of the pastor and wish of the community. In schools attached to religious orders, the teacher is appointed by the head of the order, or is nominated to the provincial authorities by the bishop. Under teachers are appointed by the superintendent, with the approval of the bishop and the district magistrate. The right of presentation to Protestant and Jewish schools belongs to the religious societies, their choice being confirmed by the provincial authorities.

The selection of a candidate for the principalship of a parochial high school is made by the bishop and confirmed by the provincial authorities; the remaining teachers are selected by the district superintendent and confirmed by the bishop. For the high schools the call for candidates is issued by the provincial authorities, who can dissent from the choice of the patron only for well grounded reasons, and in case of disagreement, right of appeal exists to the State Department. Failing the right of presentation, election is made by the provincial authorities with the approval of the bishop. These teachers serve three years upon probation before their permanent engagement. In the parochial high schools of Vienna a like probation of two years is required. Applicants for positions in the normal high schools must have demonstrated their fitness by previous service at other high schools, which service is allowed in determining their seniority and corresponding grade of salary. The director is appointed by the State Department, on nomination of the provincial authorities approved by the bishop. Catechists are appointed by the bishop and provincial authorities, after subjecting the candidates to a suitable examination.

10. *Teachers' Salaries.* It is the duty of the community to secure to the teacher of the trivial school a sufficient salary. Where the established tuition fees, the income from endowments, and the privilege of residence in the school building does not suffice, the deficiency is made good by the grant or use of land, or a money payment is made, to be collected like other taxes. Where contributions in money or in kind are still obligatory upon individuals, the community regulates the amount, quality, and times of payment—or where these and similar modes of payment have been abolished, commutation of the payments in kind has been made at two-thirds of their average value during the preceding ten years, the deficit being made good by the community. Under-teachers, besides lodging and decent subsistence in the family of the teacher, receive also a salary proportionate to the revenues of the school. Those engaged in the instruction of branch schools receive a suitable compensation from the neighborhoods where the schools are situated. Temporary supplies made necessary by a teacher's sickness or other cause, are paid from his salary so far as it can be done, and otherwise by the community. When the incapacity of the teacher from old age or sickness makes a permanent

substitute necessary, his salary is paid by the community, assisted if need be by the school fund.

The offices of trivial teacher and church chorister are every where united, except in the larger towns, but the teacher can never be required to assist in the choir services without compensation nor to the detriment of his school duties, and the office of chorister is to be always considered as subordinate to that of the teacher. The duties of sexton and bell-ringer may be declined by the teacher for sufficient reason.

An authenticated statement is required to be made of all the important items of the teacher's income, from whatever source derived, in accordance with a detailed form, and of all the necessary expenses to be paid therefrom, as for under-teachers, bellows-blowers, cleaning of school-room and church, taxes, &c. This statement becomes a permanent authoritative document, upon which, in case of arrearages, execution may be based by the civil authorities. Care is taken that the income of the teacher, once ascertained, shall remain intact; dues which were once paid him for services not now legally required, as for the ringing the church bells in tempests, and the offering of incense, are still to be paid him, and assessments upon the property of cathedrals and convents, if once fixed and regularly made, are still to be paid though the religious body may have become defunct. Payments in kind can not be arbitrarily commuted below their true value, nor can the teacher even resign a claim to the injury of the school income or of a future teacher, nor upon his own judgment accept of an offer from the community respecting the amount of his future salary. Agreements in which a teacher yields any of his strict rights, out of regard to the community, can be but temporary and with a reservation of the rights of his successor. School buildings are free from tax, but the incomes of teachers in places of over 4,000 inhabitants, or if exceeding 630 fl., are subject to the same taxes as other incomes and occupations.

The minimum salary is fixed at 210–315 fl., (for under-teachers, at half this amount,) and any deficiency in this sum is to be made good by the community, assisted, if necessary, from the school fund. This minimum is not conclusive, but the average expenses of living in any place are to be considered in determining the sufficiency of a salary. Other occupations are allowed so far as they do not interfere with the proper duties of the school—and especially that of giving additional hours of instruction to their scholars, not excluding those of poor parents, the fees for which are divided by agreement between the teacher and under-teachers. In the Protestant schools of Vienna this after-instruction is done away with. In the country the business of a community clerk, from the amount of writing to be done, very often necessarily devolves upon the teacher. Under-teachers may also engage in private instruction in the studies of the school, in singing, drawing, instrumental music, &c. While also the engagement of teachers in different branches of agriculture, in the culture of silk, (in Styria especially,) and in the care

of bees, (in all the German and Slavonian provinces,) is desired and encouraged,* occupation in any trade is as strictly forbidden, and even the carrying on of a private school can be done only with the consent of the State Department.

The preceding remarks apply as well to the teachers of the parochial high schools; it is the intention here, however, that the salary shall be such as to secure men competent for the positions. The office of chorister is seldom attached to the school, and in most of the large cities fixed salaries are paid by the communities.† The salaries of high school teachers are also paid from the revenues of the communities, unless the schools have taken the place of extinct Jesuit colleges, (as sometimes in Bohemia and Moravia,) or are attached to teachers' seminaries and consequently sustained from the school fund. The occupations of the teachers, aside from their school duties, are under the supervision of the director. The catechists are paid as other teachers, but in general no compensation is made to pastors for religious instruction.

11. *Removal and Dismissal of Teachers.*—Monks who are engaged in teaching may be called away by the head of their order, but only after three years of service and at the close of a school year. Trivial teachers can be removed only by the provincial authorities with the approval of the bishop and after the failure of all minor measures for his amendment by the pastor, district superintendent, and bishop. Offenses which endanger the welfare of the scholars or are punishable in the courts of justice are alone followed by immediate dismissal. Even when no longer competent for the duties of the school from advanced age or sickness, the only measure to be adopted is the appointment of an assistant. Resignation in favor of a third party, with a reservation of a portion of the school income, is no longer permitted, even in behalf of the son of the incumbent. A teacher can change his under-teachers only with the consent of the superintendent and after six weeks notice. Like notice is required on the part of the under-teacher, but such changes can not be made without sufficient reason before the close of a school term. The dismissal of an under-teacher must be preceded by admonition from the teacher, pastor, and superintendent, and the bishop may forbid his farther employment in the schools of his diocese. A formal publication of his incapacity for teaching can, however, only be made by the provincial authorities.—The directors and teachers of the high schools are subject to the rules governing the removal of State officials.

---

* In Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia, much interest is taken by the country teachers in agriculture and orcharding, and the number of orchards attached to the schools has increased in seven years from 849 to 1,800, with 170,000 grafted trees. In Silesia the raising of bees has rapidly increased, so that in 1860 there were 80 schools which had already nearly 500 hives.

† In Vienna three-sevenths of the principals receive 1,000 fl.; the remainder 800 fl., with a residence rent free, in all cases, or an equivalent. The teachers of the first class receive 600 fl. and 500 fl.; second class teachers, 400 fl. and 300 fl.; the number of teachers in the four grades being in the proportion of five, six, eight, and twelve. Advancement within a class is made by seniority; from one class to another, by appointment.

[*To be Continued.*]

II. NATURE AND VALUE OF EDUCATION.

BY JOHN LALOR.*

THE chief difficulty with which a writer, who urges a reform in education, has to struggle, is the general ignorance of its *nature*,—of what it can do for mankind. If correct notions of its power were once impressed upon the public mind, so that men should feel the extent of their own educational want, improvements, which are now year after year vainly urged upon their attention, would at once be carried into effect. The utmost that is hoped, or dreamed by theorists, would be outstripped in action and practice by the energies of society, working out education, as they have worked out the arts dependent on the physical sciences. In attempting, therefore, to prove the advantage of giving increased social importance to the educational profession, it will be requisite, in the first place, to point out how much more than is usually supposed is properly included in education, and to show something of its power over human happiness.

Education, then, does not mean merely reading and writing, nor any degree, however considerable, of mere intellectual instruction. It is, in its largest sense, a process which extends from the commencement to the termination of existence. A child comes into the world, and at once his education begins. Often at his birth the seeds of disease or deformity are sown in his constitution—and while he hangs at his mother's breast, he is imbibing impressions which will remain with him through life. During the first period of infancy, the physical frame expands and strengthens; but its delicate structure is influenced for good or evil by all surrounding circumstances,—cleanliness, light, air, food, warmth. By and by, the young being within shows itself more. The senses become quicker. The desires and affections assume a more definite shape. Every object which gives a sensation, every desire gratified or denied, every act, word, or look of affection or of unkindness, has its effect, sometimes slight and imperceptible, sometimes obvious and permanent, in building up the human being; or, rather, in determining the direction in which it will shoot up and unfold itself. Through the different states of the infant, the child, the boy, the youth, the man, the development of his physical, intellectual, and moral nature goes on, the various circumstances of his condition incessantly acting upon him—the healthfulness or unhealthfulness of the air he breathes; the kind, and the sufficiency of his food and clothing; the degree in which his physical powers are exerted; the freedom with which his senses are allowed or encouraged to exercise themselves upon external objects; the extent to which his faculties of remembering, comparing, reasoning, are tasked; the sounds and sights of home;

* Prize Essay on the Expediency and Means of Elevating the Profession of the Educator in Society. Published by the Central Society of Education. London.

the moral example of parents; the discipline of school; the nature and degree of his studies, rewards, and punishments; the personal qualities of his companions; the opinions and practices of the society, juvenile and advanced, in which he moves; and the character of the public institutions under which he lives. The successive operation of all these circumstances upon a human being from earliest childhood constitutes his education;—an education which does not terminate with the arrival of manhood, but continues through life,—which is itself, upon the concurrent testimony of revelation and reason, a state of probation or education for a subsequent and more glorious existence.

The first inquiries, then, which present themselves are, whether circumstances act upon the mind at random, or according to any fixed and discoverable laws? —and how far is it in our power to control their operation? To these it can be answered, that the growth of the human being, from infancy up, in mind as well as in body, takes place, at all events to *a great extent*, according to fixed laws. The assertion is qualified simply to avoid certain controversies which have no practical relation to the subject. No one can observe the movements of his own mind, or the mental operations of another, particularly a child, without discovering the frequent recurrence of the same combinations of thoughts, or of thoughts and acts. When two sensations, or a sensation and an idea, or two ideas, have been frequently experienced together, the occurrence of one calls up the other. The name "table" suggests the idea. The first word of a familiar poem brings the others after it. A sudden blow excites anger. Frequent pain makes fretfulness habitual. Here we see the operation of *laws*,—laws of mind discoverable by observation of nature, like the laws of mechanics or astronomy. These must form the basis of practical education,—the science on which the art is founded. The practical art of education has regard to a small part only of the long train of circumstances which operate upon a human being;—namely, that portion which belongs to his early life, and which is within the control of others. In this sense education means the body of practical rules, for the regulation of the circumstances about children, by which they may be trained up to the greatest perfection of their nature.

The nature of the laws of the human constitution, and of the power which a knowledge of them can give us, will appear more distinctly from a consideration of each of the three branches into which education is now, by common consent, divided—physical, intellectual, and moral. It is convenient to consider them separately, but each is intimately connected with the others. It will not be necessary to attempt, even in the most abridged form, a complete view of any one of these branches. A reference to a few principles in each will be sufficient to show that, by the general application of a system of education adapted to the wants and capacities of human nature, the condition of society, and particularly of its poorer classes, could be greatly elevated, and a host of evils which afflict mankind avoided.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

The influence of the physical frame upon the intellect, morals, and happiness of a human being, is now universally admitted. Perhaps the extent of this influence will be thought greater in proportion to the accuracy with which the subject is examined. The train of thought and feeling is perpetually affected by the occurrence of sensations arising from the state of our internal organs. The connection of high mental excitement with the physical system is obvious

[illegible]

[illegible] much neglect, as in the ventilation of bedrooms [illegible] of caution, which dreads the least exposure to a breeze, and [illegible] dren to the house, not only prevents sufficient muscular [illegible] the expanding frame of the delightful and invigorating [illegible] But the children of the poorer classes in large towns are the [illegible] impurity of atmosphere. Living in narrow lanes and courts [illegible] lated filth is perpetually loading the air with noxious [illegible] crowded in small rooms, which seldom receive even the [illegible] that such places admit of. The inmates of such habitations [illegible]

space the inclosed atmosphere of which, even with the best ventilation in the daytime, would supply but a small proportion of the requisite quantity of vital air. With its absolute impurities it is nothing less than slow poison to the sleepers. In these rooms it frequently happens that the children, particularly the younger ones, who need air most, are shut up for safety in the daytime, during the absence of working parents. And when they are let loose their sports take place in these same narrow lanes and alleys, where physical contaminations are the least evils that can befall them.

It is not easy to remedy these evils, but much may be done to diminish them. A good large play-ground should be considered an indispensable part of every school. Here, at least, the children might breathe as pure an atmosphere as large towns could supply, and, what is of not less consequence, feel practically its importance. Play-grounds would, indeed, frequently be expensive; but on what public object is expenditure justifiable if not on this, which so intimately concerns the health,—and through the health, as well as in a more direct manner, the morals of the people? It is not a good, but a mischief, to crowd children into rooms for the purpose of schooling, where there is no play-ground, and a supply of pure air is impossible. Yet, in all great towns, numbers of such schools may be found, in which, on entrance, the atmosphere is felt perfectly oppressive, and the children appear languid and restless, enlivened only by the casual opening of the door, to admit at the same moment a visitor and a stream of fresh air. The most open, airy, and healthful localities should invariably be selected for schools. School business should be frequently interrupted by a short run into the play-ground. A few minutes so used would infuse vigor into all proceedings. When the business of a class admitted of its being taken into the open air in fine weather, a master would often find the change sufficient to convert languor into alertness and attention.

Habits of cleanliness are both healthful and moralizing. The skin is an organ through which, by means of a constant but insensible perspiration, a great part of the waste matter of the human body is carried off. When it remains without washing for any length of time, the matter collected on its surface obstructs the minute vessels or apertures, of which it contains a greater number than an equal surface of the finest cambric, and prevents the waste matter from passing out. The consequence is, that some of the other excretory organs are stimulated to an unhealthy action,—and this gradually produces weakness and ill health, or some specific form of disease, as of the bowels or lungs. When we know that numbers pass through life, having scarcely ever given their entire persons a thorough ablution; that multitudes never dream of touching with water any part of their bodies but the face, the hands, and sometimes the feet, except during the extreme heat of summer, we can readily find in such habits the cause of a considerable portion of the disease which exists. The healthful action of the skin requires that its impurities should be removed by regular ablutions of the entire person. The delicious excitement of the first bath in summer, to those who discontinue bathing in winter, is chiefly caused by the stimulus given to the cutaneous vessels, and through them to the whole system, by the removal of the collected impurities of many months. Many, to whom entire ablution by bathing or sponging is a daily practice, can speak of its admirable efficacy in bracing and harmonizing the system, and guarding it against the varieties of colds, coughs, &c. Such habits appear extremely troublesome and

difficult of acquirement to those who grow up to mature life with opposite ones; but it is in our power, by education, to make them an essential part of the *nature* of the young. Children might be trained to habits of strict and entire cleanliness, which would never leave them, because they would make it far more painful to omit regular ablution than it now is to the most reluctant to practice it. If popular education did nothing more than create such habits in the children of the poor in towns, it would prevent a fearful amount of physical and moral disorder. Children habituated to cleanliness would make a change in the poorest abodes. The most wretched garrets or cellars might and would be made clean. Attention to cleanliness in the dwellings of the poor must co-exist with some degree of self-respect and moral feeling; and, where these are, there will be improvement. Habits of cleanliness, made general, would change bathing from a luxury for the few into a necessary for the many. Baths of all kinds would become cheap and accessible. If a working man, exhausted with toil, could have (as under such circumstances he might) a warm bath for the same or a less price than a glass of gin or spirits, he would learn to prefer it, as a more agreeable and effectual restorative.

Exercise, everybody admits, is essential to health. Exercise is the great law for securing the health and strength of every part of the constitution, physical and mental. In this place it is to be considered as promoting the action of the muscular system. The muscles of any portion of the body, when worked by exercise, draw additional nourishment from the blood, and by the repetition of the stimulus, if it is not excessive, increase in size, strength, and freedom of action. The regular action of the muscles promotes and preserves the uniform circulation of the blood, which is the prime condition of health. The strength of the body, or of a limb, depends upon the strength of the muscular system, or of the muscles of the limb; and as the constitutional muscular endowment of most people is tolerably good, the diversities of muscular power, observable amongst men, are chiefly attributable to exercise. The fleshy, or muscular part of a blacksmith's arm, is dense and powerful like the iron of his own anvil. Now and then individuals may be met with,—prize-fighters, gymnasticians, &c., who by careful training (which is simply judicious exercise) have communicated to every part of their bodies an extraordinary degree of strength, and brought out the muscles in a corresponding development. The astonishing feats of strength and activity performed by tumblers, rope-dancers, and exhibitors of various kinds, show what can be done with the human body by the same means.

It should be an important object in education to give children a considerable degree of bodily strength. It is not merely of high utility for the laborious occupations in which most persons must pass their lives;—it is often a great support to moral dispositions. We should excite good impulses in children, and also give them the utmost strength of mind and body to carry them out. A child ought to be able to withstand injustice attempted by superior strength. Nothing demoralizes both parties more than the tyranny exercised over younger children by elder ones at school. Many good impulses are crushed in a child's heart when he has not physical courage to support them. If we make a child as strong as his age and constitution permit, he will have courage to face greater strength. A boy of this kind, resisting firmly the first assumption of an elder tyrant, may receive some hard treatment in one encounter, but he will have achieved his deliverance. His courage will secure respect. The tyrant will not again

excite the same troublesome and dangerous resistance. This is certainly not intended to encourage battles at school,—far from it. But, until a high degree of moral education is realized, the best security for general peace among children of different ages is to give each a strength and spirit which no one will like to provoke. It will further give each a confidence in his powers, and a self-respect, without which none of the hardy virtues can flourish.

The gymnastic exercises profess to be scientifically adapted to the development of the human frame; and many of them no doubt are so. They fail, or become injurious, by furnishing no contemporaneous mental excitement, or by being used without regard to the health or strength of the individual. The instruments for a few of the most approved and agreeable of these exercises ought to form a regular part of school machinery;—the circular swing, vaulting frame, climbing pole, and some others. But the great desideratum in physical education is, a series of games of an exciting character, arranged so as to develop the different muscles of the body. The mere exercise of the muscles, while the mind is inert or averse, is comparatively of little value. The efficacy of exercise requires the direction of the attention and the muscular effort to the same point at the same moment.* Most of the common sports of children secure this; but they seldom require the operation of more than a particular set of muscles. It would be desirable to have games which should at once interest, exercise various muscles, and keep all the players as active as possible. Football, perhaps, is one of the best in common use. It keeps a whole field in high excitement and action. Ball in a fives-court is excellent, but can occupy no more than four at the same time. Leap-frog exercises the muscles of the limbs and loins in running and jumping, and the muscles of the loins and back in supporting. The game of battle-door and shuttle-cock is excellent for the arms and chest, and should be played with both hands, not only for the development of the left muscles of the thorax, but also for the exercise of the left arm. Nothwithstanding the unanswerable arguments of Franklin, the left arm labors under the grievance of entire neglect up to the present day. Cricket is a fine game; but there is little continuous exercise, except for the striker and the bowler. Prison-base, hunt the hare, hoops, whipping-tops, are all good; but there is obviously required a set of games which, with an interesting purpose, would keep all engaged in them active, give full play to the voice, and call for the exercise of strength and activity in all the different muscles. Whoever shall supply this want will confer a service of no ordinary kind on education. The want exists to a still greater degree in female education, most of the best exercises for boys being unsuitable for girls; but there are some, such as battle-door and shuttle-cock, and hoops, which answer equally well for both, and an inventive mind, with a knowledge of the structure of the body, could no doubt multiply them.

Besides the communication of health and strength, physical education includes training in certain bodily accomplishments or arts. A few of these, which should be common to all classes, require notice. Children of both sexes may easily learn to swim, and when acquired early, the power may be increased to a great extent. There is, probably, no exercise which calls into play such a variety of organs. It purifies the skin, and stimulates its entire surface by a

* For a more full and interesting exposition of this and other laws of exercise, see Dr. A. Coombe's "Principles of Physiology, applied to the preservation of Health, and the improvement of Education."

uniform and gentle friction. The muscles of the trunk, neck, and limbs are strongly called out. A facility in swimming would be an additional temptation to bathing, and therefore to cleanliness. The use of the accomplishment as a means of self-preservation, or of saving the lives of others, needs no remark.

Reciting and reading aloud are physical accomplishments, with important effects, both physical and mental. Clear enunciation is not unconnected with clearness of mind. By careful management from early childhood this habit may be established if the organs of speech are not defective. Speaking aloud is a powerful exercise of those all-important organs, the lungs, as well as of various muscles of the lower part of the trunk. Perhaps, if the physical power of distinct and composed utterance were general, it would tend, more than even a considerable increase of intelligence, to free men from the influence of demagogues. Persons who happen to possess this power, in conjunction with a certain superficial fluency, exercise in public meetings an influence almost marvelous over men vastly their superiors in intellect and information. A loud voice does wonders at a time of excitement. If every man who had thoughts had a power of uttering them before assemblies of his fellow-citizens, the despotism of demagogues would be at an end.

Singing is another branch of physical education, if that indeed can be called physical which ought also to be an exercise of the intellect and still more of the heart, and which may become a powerful instrument for the refinement and moral elevation of mankind. Its physical use is considerable. It gives as much healthful exercise to the lungs and chest as reading aloud or recitation. But, as a spring of cheerfulness,—a means of tranquilizing excited feelings,—a source of enjoyment when the exhaustion of bodily labor prevents the indulgence of more purely intellectual tastes,—and a mode of satisfying that desire of excitement which, in the intervals of business or study, is sure to present itself, and which, if it find no pure and legitimate gratifications, seeks those which are neither,—music is a blessing of which we can scarcely over-estimate the value. The faculty was not given to man to lie dormant. It is all but universal in the species. The kind may be rude where the taste is rude, but music, in some shape, everywhere gladdens man's existence. We can make the enjoyment more varied and intense by cultivation, and blend it with the purest and most exalted feelings, instead of allowing it to add force to temptation by its alliance with vicious pleasures. Wind and stringed instruments are expensive; but the most perfect of all instruments, the voice, is within reach of all. At least, there are few children who, being begun with at an early age, can not be trained to sing so as to derive and communicate pleasure. A fondness for music, even of the rudest kind, is a taste above the dominion of sense. It raises man above the level of brute appetite. A degree of cultivation, within reach of all, would make it a standard enjoyment. Love of music must bring innumerable gentle and kindly sympathies along with it. Whatever is greatest and most beautiful in thought, or nature, or in human deeds, finds fitting utterance in music, and through music finds a way to the general heart.

Music, thus appealing to the highest feelings, is a moral agent. It is also an organ of great power for the expression of religious feelings. The loftiest conceptions of the divinity—the profoundest adoration—the ideas struggling out of the depths of the soul, of the power and beauty and goodness of God and creation, to which language, made up by the senses, seems so weak and inadequate—

burst forth with the fullness of inspiration in the music of Handel; and who, with even the rudest power of appreciation, can listen to those immortal strains, without being raised into sympathy with the eternal aspirations of the highest minds for the spiritual and infinite?

In teaching children to sing, the simplest combinations, both of poetry and music, should be presented, but they should be beautiful as well as simple. The early associations are the most lasting. We ought to make them beautiful. The songs of childhood should be such as may be loved in after-life, and may contribute to form a pure taste. In the infant schools singing has received considerable attention, but has been much abused. Some of the rhymes in common use are miserable doggerel. It is an injury of no trifling kind to blend the enjoyment of singing with such wretched compositions. When the importance of presenting images of simplicity and beauty through the medium of singing, in early education, becomes generally understood, it will seem a worthy office for minds of a high order to compose songs for children.

It is unnecessary to pursue the subject of physical education farther. It opens a wide and important field for investigation. Enough has been said to show how large an amount of pain and suffering might be avoided by adapting education to the constitution of the human body, and how much a due cultivation of man's physical powers would contribute to his moral excellence and enjoyment

INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION.

Intellectual Education has a twofold object: first, the development of the intellectual powers; and second, the communication of knowledge. The mere communication of a certain amount of knowledge seems to be the object of a great deal of what passes for good education. But the matter of acquisition being ill selected, and the laws of the human intellect disregarded in the mode of presenting it to the mind, it happens that even this object is most imperfectly attained. *Words* instead of *things* form the staple of education; yet the merest smattering remains with most people, in after-life, of the languages at which so many of their early years are spent. Sometimes a certain amount of facts in history or natural philosophy is communicated in education; but being addressed to the memory, and taken in passively, it leads to nothing. When ideas are admitted without any working of the reflective faculties, they take no root, but lie in dead, useless masses on the surface of the mind. The communication of even real knowledge, for its own sake, is of secondary importance in early intellectual education. The main thing is the formation of habits of correct observation and clear reflection. The mind derives its knowledge, in the first place, from external objects acting upon the organs of sense. Sensations being once received, the corresponding ideas undergo various modifications, by the processes of comparison, abstraction, reasoning, &c. When the impressions of sense are indistinct, the subsequent operations share in the uncertainty and imperfection. Intellectual development, therefore, requires that the powers of accurate observation should be first unfolded. Clear ideas being furnished by them, the various intellectual habits of abstraction, classification, and reasoning, may be rendered quick and correct. The communication of knowledge in early education is primarily useful as the means of forming these habits. Education is a preparation for after-life. It should not attempt so much to communicate extensive knowledge as to excite the love of it. The results of the observations

of the most eminent observers, received passively into the mind, are worthless compared with the habit of observing for one's self. In the one case, a man enters life with cumbrous stores which serve no purpose, because he knows not how to use them. In the other, he comes with a slender stock thoroughly at command, and with skill to increase it by daily fruits of original observation and reflection. Many children, the wonders of admiring circles, turn out common-place men, because their acquisitions are never converted by mental assimilation into part of their own nature. Others, pronounced idlers, while in fact they are developing their faculties after a fashion of their own, stand out as men, and take a lead in the business of life.

The development of the intellect begins in the infant. He is perpetually receiving sensations from the objects about him; and while awake, he is constantly seeking to get things within his grasp, to feel them, and see them. There is an impulse within him to find out the properties of every object he meets with, so fresh and vigorous, that it may well seem enviable to students dulled by exclusive intercourse with books, and long abstraction from the actual world. This precious activity ought not to run to waste. It is in our power so to guide it, that instead of dim and imperfect impressions, speedily overlaid, confused and obliterated by other dim and imperfect impressions, the child shall constantly receive from without clear sensations, and by gradual steps attain full and correct ideas of the objects about him. We can present real objects to his senses in a certain order, and in such a manner as to attract his attention, until he becomes perfectly familiar with their sensible qualities. When he has got the idea of an object, or of one of its properties, and not before, we can give him the name. The name given when his interest is excited will be firmly associated with the idea. The child's attention is first drawn to the simplest sensations. The elements being clear, their combinations will be taken in clearly; and the perceptions of resemblances or differences must be also clear. Thus, by gradual steps, of which each is clear and certain, the development proceeds.

For the effective promulgation of this great principle of teaching by reality, which all philosophy of the mind supports, and which is destined to revolutionize education, the world is indebted to PESTALOZZI. It is practically exemplified in the well-known "Lessons on Objects" of Miss Mayo, in which the lessons are arranged so as to develop successively, by real objects, the faculties of observation, comparison, classification, abstraction, and to lead to composition.

The child's strong impulse to acquaint himself with things must not be blunted by a premature attempt at teaching him to read, or by that absurd and confusing process, as it is commonly practiced, of teaching him his letters. The child must know many things before reading or spelling. The principle of submitting objects in a certain progressive order to the examination of his senses must be the basis of his intellectual education; and the habits of correct observation so formed must be systematically exercised, so as to insure their continuance throughout his existence.

Upon this knowledge of things, as a basis, the child acquires his mother tongue, never learning any word until he has had the idea, and felt the want of the name. Names, however, are for the most part complex sounds, and a very considerable and careful training of the organs of speech is necessary, before they can be uttered correctly. Here also a progressive order must be observed. We should begin with the simplest words, and gradually lead the child to the

pronunciation of them, by requiring him to repeat after us the simple sounds of which they are composed. The child teaches us so much himself when he begins with some such word as "ma," or its repetition, "mama." The syllable "ma" is composed of two simple sounds, a vowel and a consonant. A mother, without any knowledge of the principle, often exemplifies it when she pronounces this syllable for the child's imitation. She makes the two distinct sounds, *m* and *a*, (as in bar,) with a slight interval. She does not pronounce *em* and *a*, (as in fate,) the *names** of the letters, but she goes through the peculiar closing of the lips, by which *m* is produced in combination, and then sounds *a* as it is sounded in the word. The child imitates each motion, and at length utters the combination. In the same progressive manner in which a child learns to take in the most complex sensations, and to conceive the most complex ideas, his organs are brought to utter the most complex sounds correctly, and words become associated in an indissoluble union with the sensations and ideas they represent.

This is the basis, the only secure basis, on which to raise up a strong and clear intellect. When the first impressions are clear, and all the words that are known represent clear ideas, the processes of abstraction, classification, and reasoning may be made prompt, vigorous, and true.

At a very early period the child should be led, still from observation of real objects, to form ideas of number. And here also the progress must be by the most gradual steps. One finger, two fingers, three fingers. One finger and two fingers are three fingers. He must remain for a considerable time in the simplest and most obvious ideas. Here, if possible, more than anything else, is it necessary that each idea should be, as it were, worked into the texture of his mind before he proceeds to the next. The most complex combinations of number are made up of the simplest ideas; and, with many persons, ideas of number continue through life indistinct, because the simple elements of which they are composed were never clear in their minds. There should be none of the "senseless parroting" of the multiplication table, but a progressive attainment of real ideas of number from real objects,—addition and subtraction from real addition and subtraction; and from these that species of repeated addition which is called "multiplication," and that species of repeated subtraction which is called "division." Ideas of number, and of the elements of calculation, being obtained from real objects, and from different kinds of real objects, the mind may be led to clear *abstract* ideas of number. Clear ideas of number tend powerfully to general clearness of mind, and affect many subsequent acquirements. Confused ideas of number spread a haze and dimness over the whole field of knowledge.

Amongst the properties of external objects, of which the child obtains the knowledge by his senses, his attention may be early directed to their size and distances, and he will readily take in the simple ideas of measurement. He will have no difficulty in finding one thing to be longer than another, and, with the help of his clear ideas of number, one thing to be twice or three times as long as another; and two things, which can not be brought together, to be equal, by finding both equal to some third thing. His eye and hand should be exercised in measuring, and the engagement of both will interest him, and gratify

* We must be careful not to confound the *names* of the letters, as *bee*, *see*, *aich*, *double u*, with their *sounds* in combination.

the impulse to mental and bodily activity, which is almost incessant in childhood. Real measures of every kind, linear, superficial, solid and liquid, and weights,—as inches, yards, linear, square, and cubic feet, quarts, bushels, ounces, and pounds,—should be set before him, until his eye and touch are perfectly familiar with them. These should take the place of the tables of weights and measures, which, with so bold a defiance of common sense, as well as of the laws of mind, are given to children to be committed to memory, before they have a glimmering of their meaning.

From ideas of distance he will easily and naturally proceed to examine the position of external objects Being presented with the simplest ideas of position, as straight lines, angles, &c., he delineates them on paper, or a slate, from the outlines of objects progressively set before him. He is gradually led on to many of the relations of triangles and circles,—the elements of geometry and of linear drawing.

When the eye has been in some degree trained to the observation of form, and the hand to the imitation of outline, the child may begin to read; not with letters, but sentences containing words of which the object is before his eyes. He will learn the letters of print by a species of analysis, and by attempting to form them with his pencil, and his formation of the writing character will be much more free and rapid by the accuracy and pliancy which drawing has given to his eye and hand.

When people attempt to teach children geography, by compelling them to commit to memory a number of proper names, it is almost needless to say, that they are following that wretched system of word-mongering which has so long reigned supreme in every department of education. When they set a globe or a map before his eyes, they do what is, indeed, much better, but they still begin at the wrong end. Here, as in every other branch of intellectual instruction, we ought to begin with the *existing experience* of the child, and evolve out of it, by the most gradual progression, what we want him to know. We must begin with the reality which is *in him and around him*, and make known to him what he can not see, by means of that which is before his senses. A map, or plan, of the school-room or the play-ground, which he should be led to draw for himself, ought to be his first lesson in geography. This should be followed by one of his own town or district, which he can verify by personal observation. When he thoroughly understands the relation which a map bears to the reality, he may be led to the map of his country, not crowded with names, but a simple outline, with the principal mountains and rivers and a few great towns marked. In conceiving the extent of a large country, or of the globe, his clear ideas of number, acting upon the real distances which he knows, will secure clearness in the combined ideas. The *natural* divisions of the earth should be the first learned, and the productions, tea, cotton, &c., and animals which are before his senses, referred to their several homes.

Naturally connected with ideas of the surface of the earth are those of remarkable events in different places, and of the past history of the earth's principal inhabitants. Although history, properly so-called, should be perhaps the latest of all studies, there are certain leading ideas of great events and characters, which may be advantageously made known at an early period. As a basis of this knowledge the child must be led to the measurement of time. And here, as before, he must begin with what is within reach of his senses, (or what

may be popularly said to be so.) He must learn the comparative lengths of small portions of time,—as a minute, an hour, a day, a week. He should be led to think of the trifling events which he can recollect, in the order of time,—his getting up in the morning—his coming to school—his first lessons—his game in the play-ground. Having learned to conceive events of his own experience, in the order in which they occurred,—extending back over a continually increasing period,—his clear ideas of number, acting upon these clear ideas of his own little chronology, will lead him to a conception of the chronology of the human race. The chronological order will be found the most natural and easy way of presenting such interesting facts of past history as the child can comprehend.

Even if education were carried no farther than this, how great would be its effects! How superior a race of men might be produced by such a system thoroughly worked out! What power of observation, arrangement, and deduction,—what rapidity of eye and dexterity of hand, would be ready for application to any branch of the business of society. What independence of judgment would be generated in such men, by the sound and practical nature of their acquirements. Yet what modesty, from a just apprehension of the extent of knowledge above them; and what a tendency upward and onward, from the spirit of progression infused into all their labors.

It is plain, however, that if circumstances admitted of the education being carried farther, the same principles might be continued. The lessons on objects would flow on easily into complete courses of Zoölogy, Botany, Mineralogy, and Geology; the principle being strictly adhered to of examining real objects, when procurable, and when not, of using good pictures. Geometry, Algebra, Trigonometry, and the higher branches of mathematics, would easily follow, upon the thorough comprehension of the simple relations of number and position. The different branches in Natural Philosophy, exhibited by progressive experiments would be not so much a labor as a recreation.

There are two deeply important branches of study, which, as they are seldom considered proper to form a part of early education, deserve particular notice. They might be included under the single head of the study of the human constitution, but this at once presents two great divisions, which it is more convenient to consider apart. *Every child* then might be made to possess a considerable acquaintance with

1. The structure of his own body.
2. The structure or constitution of his mind.

It ought to require little reasoning to prove the utility of making these studies a part of general education. Indeed, if education were not beyond all other things governed by mere prejudice and custom, this kind of knowledge would seem the most fitting for universal acquisition, as concerning all men alike and affecting all pursuits. A knowledge of the structure of a man's own body, acquired in early life, would prevent many injurious practices, which, in most cases, are persevered in through ignorance,—such as want of cleanliness, deficient ventilation, excessive or insufficient exercise,—over-action of diseased organs. People may be told forever that they should have a regular supply of fresh air; they assent in words, and forget it because it does not get into their thoughts. A single exposition of the use of the blood, and of the part performed by the lungs, in fitting it for its purposes, would stamp the idea deeply,

and arouse the mind to act upon it. A thousand precepts against the hideous distortion caused by tight stays would not be half so effective as an exhibition of the organs in the cavity of the thorax,—or a discovery of the facility with which the lower ribs may be bent by pressure. Knowledge of this kind would be an effective aid to physical education. It would remove a host of popular prejudices. It would destroy the trust in confident empirics, and the distrust of regular practitioners. It would enable a patient, and those about him, to afford to a medical attendant that hearty coöperation which in nine cases out of ten facilitates—if it is not requisite to—recovery. To females the study is peculiarly needful. "The theory of society," in the words of Dr. Southwood Smith, "according to its present institutions, supposes that this knowledge is possessed by the mother." She is intrusted with the first and most important part of the physical and moral education of the child. Mothers, in fact, make society what it is; for the physical and moral tendencies which make up character, are generally communicated or excited before the child passes from the sphere of his mother's influence. There is thus a twofold necessity for making this study a part of female education,—to enable women, as individuals, to protect their own health and coöperate in their own physical education, and to enable them as mothers to do all that enlightened reflectiveness can for the happiness of the beings intrusted to them. In addition to these great and obvious utilities, the study of man's physical structure deserves a first place in education as matter of science. No object in external nature presents combinations so varied and beautiful, or instances of adjustment so likely to fill a young mind with wonder and veneration, as the exquisite mechanism of life.

Nor can it be doubted that a knowledge of the human structure, not vague and general, but with considerable minuteness of detail, can be conveyed in an agreeable manner to children. The well-known publication of Dr. Southwood Smith, on the "Philosophy of Health," contains an account of the structure and functions of the human body, which is not only a model of beautiful exposition, but has been found in practice an admirable manual for imparting this kind of knowledge. The whole, or in any case, the fifth, sixth, and seventh chapters, of the first volume, might be acquired in no very long period; and there is no existing school study which it would not with great advantage displace. Upon the principle of teaching by reality, the objects themselves should, as far as possible, be presented. A collection of human bones ought to form a part of the apparatus of every school. An idea might be formed of several organs from an exhibition of those of animals. A sheep's heart, for instance, which might always be procured, would give a vivid conception of the human organ, and so of others. The deficiency of real objects might be supplied by colored anatomical plates, which, like many other expensive articles, would become cheap, if a general sense of their utility in education led to an extended demand for them.

A knowledge, not quite so accurate, but still sufficiently so to serve many important purposes, of the powers of his own mind, might also be communicated to the child. Much of the misery with which the world abounds is the result of acts performed from impulse without reflection. To those whose attention from childhood has been absorbed by external objects so as never to have been directed to the operations of their own minds, it seems the most natural thing in the word to give way to a strong impulse. To pause upon the

trains of their ideas and feelings, and subject their impulses to examination, are to some persons impossible, and to most extremely difficult. The unpleasantness of the effort accompanying these states of mind hurries men for relief to any decision. There are few persons unsuccessful in life who can not trace their misfortunes to some inconsiderate impulse,—some course determined upon hastily to escape the painful balancing of reflection. Habits of reflectiveness are essential to steadiness of conduct; and they may, by early training, be made easy and familiar as the series of complicated muscular motions by which the hand goes through the process of writing.

A child, whose faculties have been properly called out by previous intellectual training, will have little difficulty in receiving correct notions of the use of his organs of sense—(he will be familiar with their material structure from the previous study)—in giving him a knowledge of the sensible qualities of external objects. He will readily discover that what he has once seen, felt, heard, tasted, or smelt, may be remembered; and thus, that of all sensations there are corresponding ideas. The synchronous and successive associations—the combination of several into one, and the separation of one into several—the mental grouping of like objects together, under one name, and the mental separation of unlike ones—the detection of the different relations of position, proportion, resemblance, difference, and comprehension, and of the composition of the trains called processes of reasoning—in short, the whole phenomena of intellect will easily follow. Nor will it be difficult to make the child discover, that there are certain motives or desires which lead him to act as he does; that he eats in obedience to the impulse of appetite; that he strikes from anger, or desire to do others injury; that he is pleased when others approve of his conduct, and pained by their disapprobation; that he loves certain individuals, and would give up his pleasures for theirs; that it is pleasant to make others happy; that some of these desires require to be controlled, and that all are to be regulated by the reasoning faculties. In the acquirement of this knowledge the young mind would be led to turn its attention upon itself, and so to form habits of self-examination. A great insight into human motives would thus be gained, and an extraordinary correctness of moral judgment both on self and others. Reflectiveness, the true soil for the growth of whatever is best in character, would be made general; and the public opinion of a school would acquire such a justness and force, as to become a powerful engine of moral education. It would be difficult to point out a book perfectly adapted to give this knowledge to children. The purpose might be answered by a judicious abridgment of Brown's Lectures, or, still better, by a small compilation from the works of Berkeley, Hartley, Adam Smith, Stewart, Brown, and Mill, and the phrenological writings of Mr. Coombe and some others; avoiding all great disputed questions, and confined to those expositions of the human faculties which may be considered as established. As matter of science, and as affording perpetual illustrations of the Divine wisdom and goodness, the philosophy of the mind is even more deserving of a place in education than the study of man's physical structure. The double necessity of making it a part of female education holds likewise; for in addition to its use for moral guidance and self-government, it is especially needful for the mother, to whom nature and society intrust the early rearing of the child.

Other sciences, as Political Economy, the elements of which ought to enter into general education, need not be particularly remarked upon.

There is one subject which requires a short consideration before passing to the third branch of education, or that which relates to the formation of moral character.

It may be thought extravagant to propose the cultivation of a taste for poetry as a regular part of education, especially for the poorer classes. Yet education, which seeks to develop the faculties of a human being, must be very inadequate if it neglects the culture of the imagination. The power of poetic creation is, indeed, the rarest of endowments, but the power of enjoyment is general. The highest human mind differs not in kind, but in degree, from the humblest. The deepest principles of science discovered by the slow toil of the greatest men, the loftiest imaginings of the poet, having once been revealed in the form of human conceptions, and embodied in language, become the common property of the race, and all who go out of life without a share in these treasures, which no extent of participation diminishes, have lost the richest portion of their birthright. Man rarely feels the dignity of his nature in the small circle of his common cares. It is when brought into communion with the great spirits of the present and the past,—when he beholds the two worlds of imagination and reality in the light of Shakspeare's genius,—or is filled with the sacred sublimities of Milton,—or from Wordsworth learns the beauty of common things, and catches a glimpse of those "clouds of glory" out of which his childhood came,—that he feels the elevating sense of what he is and may become. In this high atmosphere, so bracing to the moral nerves, no selfish or sordid thoughts can live.

But assuredly there is no class in society to whom the sustainment of such communion is more requisite than to the largest and poorest. The harshness of the realities about them requires its softening and soothing influence. It is a good which they may have with no evil attendant. Its purifying excitement may displace stimulants which brutalize and degrade them. Let it not be said that a poetic taste would turn their thoughts from their occupations, or fill them with discontent. Their thoughts will and must fly at times from their occupations, and find forgetfulness in snatches of drunken revelry, from which they return to labor with double distaste, in mental and bodily exhaustion. A power of enjoying the beauty of poetic creations would afford an easier and far more delicious oblivion of their sorrows. It would send them back tranquilized and refreshed—reanimated with hope and faith for the continued struggle of existence. While poetry continues a rare enjoyment, a taste for it may sometimes suggest vain ambition and discontent, but let it be made a universal possession, and it will no more puff up than the common capability of mechanical or manual labor. But it is sufficient for the argument that poetry appeals to faculties common to all. That is our warrant for their educational development. Who shall pronounce that capacities given by God ought to lie idle? Who shall put out the love of beauty which he has kindled? Who shall exclude the bulk of mankind from that rich heritage of noble thoughts, which has been bequeathed, with no restrictions, to the whole human family?

The practical working of this part of education will have many difficulties; but none which enlightened observation must not ultimately overcome. A taste for poetry, of course, can only be awakened in a child by a mature mind which possesses it. Simple and progressive pieces, chiefly narrative, containing natural sentiments, should be presented as a pleasure and a reward. Selections

might be made from Goldsmith, Cowper, Scott, Mary Howitt, and others. With constant care to avoid disgust by too long continuance, by unintelligibility, or by exciting the associations of a task, the child would feel poetry an enjoyment, and his powers of appreciation would gradually unfold themselves. The use of tales about fairies, genii, and other supernaturalisms, or of juvenile novels in childhood,—their applicability to individual characters—the means of cherishing a love of the beautiful in art and in nature—in a word, the culture of the imagination is a deeply interesting and almost untrodden field of investigation; but the present purpose does not require the further prosecution of the topic.

MORAL EDUCATION.

The human body may attain its noblest perfection of health and strength—the observation may be acute—the intellect profound—the imagination rich; and yet these varied and glorious powers be turned to evil. Strength may support tyranny, acuteness and depth raise up obstacles to truth, and imagination spend its gorgeous eloquence in the service of the basest vices. The work is incomplete if the moral nature remains uncultivated. Physical and intellectual education aim at the perfection of the instruments, which may become splendid implements of evil if moral education does not succeed in regulating the power which is to use them.

When the child is hanging at his mother's breast his moral education is going on. His impulses are growing into those habits of action which will constitute his moral character. His pleasures come from his mother, and his pains are relieved by her. His little heart is drawn towards her with the first movements of affection. By her, and at this early period, the foundation of moral education ought to be laid. His dawning feelings should be watched over by a patient and thinking love. His affection for his mother should be gently led to embrace other beings, and raised reverently to God, as the cause of all his happiness, and the living Father of all.

It would be idle to expect, however, in the present state of society, that the mother's precious opportunities should be generally made use of. Many minds must bestow their energies upon education before mothers can be brought to feel their most important duties, or become capable of discharging them. Meanwhile, the practical course is to consider what can be done for moral education by the professional educator.

In the first place, he must seek to supply the omissions of the mother. Having obtained as much power as possible over the pains and pleasures of the child, he must use it to obtain the child's affection. Nothing but real fondness will do this. The teacher should struggle to have a mother's sympathy with the pains and pleasures of the child, and aim at its utmost present happiness consistent with its future good. Real affection, which will manifest itself not merely in action, but in every look and tone, will not fail to meet a return. The human heart, and particularly the child's heart, "leaps kindly back to kindness." By the love thus excited the moral character must be unfolded.

The affection of the child soon shows itself in little acts of kindness to those whom it loves. Every such act should be acknowledged, not with praise, but with affection in return, showing itself in its natural language of looks and caresses. Nothing is too trifling to deserve notice. The first buddings of the infant feelings must be feeble, and a slight chill may wither or destroy them.

Only by the most delicate and assiduous cultivation can they be reared up to their full vigor and beauty. When a child offers some little gift, great to him, and which he thinks must be equally pleasurable to us, if we slight or neglect it, he is hurt and confused. The good impulse is disappointed, and therefore weakened. If we cause him to feel that he can not make us happy, he will cease to make the attempt; and so love perishes in his heart. We should attend to every act of kindness, think of it as it is in his thoughts, and respond to the feelings which prompted it. We must, if possible, not let one of those precious impulses be wasted, but so treat them as to encourage a repetition, until they acquire the strength and permanence of habit.

If we select the moments when a child is enjoying some particular pleasure, to point out to him how others may be made to enjoy pleasure also, his sympathy will be excited, and his efforts prompted to communicate happiness. His attention may easily be drawn to the symptoms of suffering in others, and his natural impulse will be to relieve it. We must be careful, however, not to excite his feelings of compassion, except where he can do something to alleviate the pain which calls them forth. When his good impulses are watched, and his little acts of kindness receive the sympathy which is their due, the kind dispositions will be strengthened into habits. He will find it a delight of a very exquisite kind to communicate happiness to others. He will find additional satisfaction in the increased kindness and esteem of those about him, and he will find his own little pleasures made doubly sweet by being enjoyed along with companions.

But RELIGION ought to be the basis of education, according to often repeated writings and declamations. The assertion is true. Christianity furnishes the true basis for raising up character; but the foundation must be laid in a very different manner from that which is commonly practiced.

In nothing is more ignorance of the nature of the human constitution shown, than in the modes by which it is attempted to implant religion in the young mind. In no other part of education (where almost all has been empiricism and practical denial of the existence of mental laws) has there been so resolute a disregard of the dictates of common sense; and the general cowardice of opinion on such matters has tended to perpetuate absurdities in defiance of repeated exposure. It must be admitted that to love God and our fellow-men is the great law of Christianity. It is not enough that these principles should be mere conclusions of the intellect, still less that they should dwell only in external profession. They should have possession of the innermost stronghold of man's heart. They should enter into his home of familiar and cherished feelings, and be blended with his ruling motives, that they may have power to inspire him with allegiance to the law of duty in the most trying contingencies, and to uphold him in the shipwreck of earth's hopes and happiness.

Now if the love of God, including, as it must, the steadfast faith in the tendency of his works to good, is to be the great central reality of human existence, how may we lay the foundation for it in the mind of the child? By the constitution of his nature he loves those things which excite agreeable feelings, and dislikes their opposites. Things kind, beautiful, and harmonious, are loveable; things cruel, severe, discordant, tedious, are fearful and hateful. If, therefore, we begin to lead a child to God, by teaching creeds or catechisms beyond his comprehension, or by causing him to read and repeat Scripture, be-

fore it can excite ideas, we do indeed manifold mischief, but we do nothing to excite affection. We present no images of beauty and love to fill his heart with delight, and we leave no impression but one of tedium from listening to or repeating unintelligible sounds. If, however, we do not content ourselves with such mindless repetition, but succeed in communicating distinct impressions, not of the merciful and loving Father, the Author of the infinite variety of our happy feeling, and of the wondrous beauty with which creation teems, but of the Avenger and terrible Judge, who will inflict everlasting torture on transgressors,—then we not merely fail to excite love to God, but lay a lasting foundation for feelings which, as long as they exist, render that love impossible. If "perfect love casteth out fear," it is because these feelings are mutually destructive. Terror is opposed to love. It is allied to hate, and wants only courage to show abhorrence. If we make the idea of God terrible on the impressible and retentive mind of childhood, religion will become a painful weight, which ordinary minds will escape from when they can—which the more feeble (often, like Cowper, the most finely organized of our race) will sink under—but which the vigorous few will, at maturity, fling boldly off, incurring, as the cost of their mental freedom, whatever injury to their moral nature may follow from the loss of their early faith.

Infinite, therefore, is the mischief of disregarding the operation of the laws, according to which the Author of nature has made our feelings to grow up; and incalculable would be the good of humbly following those laws, in rearing up the religious being of the child. By the delight which he has in loving human beings, his mind may be raised in affection to God. The reality of human love is the germ of that deeper, purer love, or rather loving veneration, with which it is the highest characteristic of the human mind to regard the Deity. The moments of enjoyment, in which the little heart is full of gratitude,—of vague, indistinct, but loving impulses,—should be seized to give the idea of the great cause from which its happiness springs. The idea should be associated with every thing that is pleasant and beautiful, and invested with the parental character, to which the love of human parents can be extended. We shall thus make the love of God a reality. If we continue to link it more and more closely with whatever is dearest, by systematically calling it forth, in conjunction with the operation of all faculties, and by making it enter into all enjoyments, it would acquire that mastery over the character which our present ignorant and neglectful treatment of children insures to the lower passions.

Whatever is beautiful or noble in conduct requires only to be presented to the young mind to excite its sympathy and admiration. The New Testament, properly used, is the best of all books for a child, as well as for a man. Its stories, so simple and beautiful, are exactly fitted to attract his attention, and supply his imagination and moral feelings with the food proper for each. Used with a constant regard to its effect upon his thoughts, so as to stimulate his mental activity and give it a right direction, it must be a grand instrument of moral and religious education, even in their very early stages. The deeds of great men—of those who have acted and suffered in all ages for the benefit of their fellow-creatures—will likewise have immense power. The histories of the Oberlins, the Pestalozzis, the Howards, and the Clarksons, the true heroes of our race, are the best commentaries on the Christian Scriptures. These chosen missionaries of God have left no richer heritage behind them than the uncon-

querable and self-sacrificing zeal for human improvement, which their example will inspire in generation after generation.

But, while we should commence the child's moral education by surrounding him with all influences of love and happiness, and lay the foundation of religion deep in his nature, by associating its primary ideas with what is most loved, it does not follow that we should withhold all knowledge of God's severer dispensations. The great law of education, as of all science, is Truth. We must lead the child to know things as they are, and, therefore, he must know what is terrible in appearance, as well as what is kind in God's dealings with mankind. But if there be some aspects of the providential dispensations so awful that the firmest faith can not look upon them with a steady eye, of how much consequence is it that the feeble and susceptible mind of childhood should be preoccupied with ideas which give it strength while they excite its love, before it is acquainted with these that are fearful. The first feelings color the after-life. When a child's first impressions of the Divine Being represent him as a loving father, and when these have been confirmed by repetition, we may gradually show to the opening reason that it is sometimes the part of a father to chasten those whom he loves. As the child's faculties ripen, we may lead him more and more to understand the wholesomeness to the moral being of many of the miseries and misfortunes of life, until he is left at maturity in the best plight that the care and culture of others can leave him, to combat the temptations of the world, and struggle with the awful mystery of evil. Thus by acting on the mind according to the laws of its moral development, we might insure that whatever peculiar doctrines the individual afterwards took up, the great moral principles of Christianity would have taken root in the depths of his nature, and would be interwoven with his earliest prejudices. The spirit of love and hope, and faith in good, would remain unshaken by calamities, shedding perpetual light on the dark and thorny path of life, revealing in the present evil the future good, and clothing the changeful incidents of this shifting scene with the hues and harmonies of a better existence. We can, indeed, scarcely conceive the purity, the self-denial, and the power, that might be given to the human character by systematic development. Recollecting how the finest minds have had to struggle with bad passions strengthened before the maturity of reason, and how much power has been expended in those internal strivings, who shall set limits to the moral force which might be attained by one trained from the first to combat and keep down its selfish impulses? What mighty object for the regeneration of mankind might not be accomplished by a mind impelled from the outset in one direction, and instead of working with what energy remains after its self-conflicts and dubious wanderings in speculations darkened by passion, directing its full unwasted endowment of WILL against external obstacles?

Veracity—truthfulness in thought, word, and deed—is a first principle of morals. It would almost seem as if we need not teach children truthfulness, provided only we could avoid teaching them falsehood. The child's impulse is unreservedly to believe and to speak the truth. We teach him doubt and falsehood. We teach him doubt by repeatedly deceiving him. We teach him falsehood by our own example, and by making it easier for him to say what is false than what is true. That truth is the natural impulse of the mind, is manifest from the slightest consideration of the laws of its development. The ideas of the objects or events which have had words associated with them (*i. e.*, which

the child has learned to speak of) invariably call up in his mind those words and no other. If the child is questioned about any particular occurrence, the words which describe what he thinks to have taken place are precisely those which present themselves. The ideas in his mind call up the words which have been associated with them, and it requires an effort to reject those, and call up others expressing something which did not take place. This effort the child makes only from a *motive*, and after he has seen it made by others. We use words to him expressing what he discovers to be contrary to the fact. We parry some inconvenient query by an invention; or we attempt to quiet him by threatening something frightful, which does not come. He witnesses falsehood in many of the daily transactions of life. Thus the natural association between words and the things they represent is broken. He soon learns the convenience of falsehood. He is questioned as to some little mischief, which he, without suspicion or hesitation, confesses; and he is punished. He sees a servant or a play-fellow escape by denial. He associates punishment with confession, and impunity with falsehood.

We must take care of this. Our intercourse with children, and, if only for their sakes, with others, should be marked by perfect truthfulness. It will preserve the confidence of the child, which is one of the most powerful, nay, indispensable, instruments for his improvement. His own veracity we must preserve at all events. Full, frank confession should always obtain its reward of approbation, even if it does not wholly remove the displeasure at what has been done wrong. This fearless spirit of truth, so beautiful in childhood, and the companion of all noble virtues in mature life, requires only not to be withered in its first shoots by severe rebuke, or cold displeasure. Severity is one of the chief causes of falsehood. It excites terror, and terror seeks refuge in deceit. Fear will oppose falsehood and cunning to the force with which it can not openly contend. The acuteness of the mind is tasked to devise the means of successful duplicity, and its beautiful structure runs out into a distorted development, which future training can do but little to alter. We must preserve, therefore, in our own affairs, a supreme regard to truth. We should hold it up as a glorious principle worth suffering for, and show our warm admiration for those men who in various ages have chosen neglect and poverty and death for truth's sake.

It would, perhaps, be generally admitted that, upon these great principles of love to God and to man, and perfect truthfulness, (if the two former do not include the latter,) we ought to shape the moral being. This would seem less difficult if the mind were, as Locke supposed, like a sheet of white paper on which we might inscribe what characters we pleased. Our task is very different when we know that it is a germ with distinct tendencies folded up within it, and that, although we may make it flourish or decay, the form which it will take is not what we might arbitrarily determine, but one mainly depending on its own internal forces, and which can be only modified by the treatment it receives from us. We are not, then, to expect that by mere appeals to the child's capacity for loving, and his impulse to truth, he can be made loving and truthful; these feelings are obstructed and modified by other powerful impulses, which show themselves at the earliest period of his being. Such are the animal appetites; irrascibility, or the impulse to anger; fear; love of distinction or attention:—these impulses are perpetually crossing the more elevated ones;

and by one or other the character is borne along. The main difficulty in moral education is the subjection of these impulses (their suppression being neither possible nor desirable) to the higher feelings. And here, as elsewhere, we must be guided by the laws according to which these passions are strengthened in the mind.

The appetites necessary for the preservation of our physical frame are felt at the earliest period of life,—hunger and thirst are among the first sensations of the infant. They are, for a long time, the strongest and most constantly recurring of all impulses. This arises, necessarily, from the constitution of the human being, which requires that its physical powers should be the earliest developed, afterwards its observational and intellectual, and lastly its moral faculties. Hence it happens that the impulses for the satisfaction of these wants, which we have in common with animals, are confirmed by repetition into *habits* long before the higher principles of our nature. We can not alter this; and our business is, first, to avoid any more excitement of those appetites than is necessary for the fulfillment of their functions; secondly, to prevent them, as far as possible, from coming into collision with the higher impulses of justice, kindness, generosity; and lastly, when such collisions can not be prevented, to strengthen the child's better nature to deny the appetite.

In the first place, we must avoid all undue excitement of the appetites. Children are often treated as if eating and drinking were their only pleasures. They are made the great rewards,—the motives of action. "Learn your lesson and I will give you a sugar-plum." "Be good boys, tell the truth, and you shall have a peach after dinner." Sugar-plums and peaches are made to sweeten the bitters of intellectual exertion and moral conduct. By exciting the imagination to work upon the appetites, we open an indefinite field for their extension, and we subject to them the intellectual and moral being. The pleasures of eating and drinking fill the thoughts, and ingenuity is tasked to obtain them. The character is borne onward by one impulse, acquiring intensity by daily gratification, until it settles into that most debasing form of selfishness in which the appetite is made a god; all affections, charities, human feelings, are sacrificed at its shrine, and whatever power of intellect or graces of imagination linger serve only to decorate its altar.

The appetites of children are unnaturally excited when they see us make the gratification of our own subjects of conversation and anxiety. To save *them* from the mischiefs of inordinate appetite, we must be simple and moderate *ourselves*. We must show that we regard eating for its use; that it occupies little of our attention, and forms no part of our favorite enjoyments. Undue excitement may also be avoided by giving children their meals with perfect regularity, so that the appetites may be habituated to arise at fixed times, and at no others. Nor should meals ever be made use of for the purposes of reward or punishment. Either will give them a mischievous importance, and we should avoid whatever makes them a subject of attention until they arrive. Eating and drinking will, under any circumstances, be positive and very vivid pleasures, and therefore must be made subservient to moral education. Meals should, wherever it is possible, be taken by several children together, and without allowing discussion as to rights or quantity, the strictest justice of distribution should be observed. Each child should have his attention called to the gratification of his companions, and he should be encouraged to contribute to their enjoyment. Many beautiful

impulses of generosity, and of that sympathy which is the foundation of politeness, would be observed in such a group, where nature had not been corrupted by unnatural stimulants. The pleasure of society, and of communicating enjoyment, would soon be felt more vividly than the mere gratification of appetite. Dinners would come to be regarded as dull and cheerless without the circle of happy faces; and thoughts of pleasures of the palate would be clustered round and interwoven with ideas of similar gratification in others. Many a warm and benevolent heart has been first moved to its good work by feelings which, if analyzed, would present, simply, a deep and strong conception of the physical wants of others.

We may thus do much to prevent the clashing of appetites with higher impulses. If a child is debarred from the gratification of his natural appetite, he will use any means in his power to obtain the requisite satisfaction. His appetite is a powerful impulse growing continually more urgent. If he can set it at rest by falsehood or theft, he is certain, after more or less hesitation, to do so. The principles of truth and justice, in a child of the best organization, are feebler than the principle of appetite; and where we compel a collision in which these forces are left to their own unaided strength, the appetite must prevail. Whatever the Spartan discipline might have been able to effect in more advanced youth, such self-command as would maintain truth and justice against cravings of a growing appetite is not possible in childhood.

The general rule, therefore, should be to avoid such collisions. But it is necessary that the man should be able to control his appetites, and, therefore, the child must attempt it. The early strength of these impulses is probably not more necessary for the preservation of our physical frame, than for our moral probation and advancement. We must begin with the slightest trials. If the child's attention has been awakened to the pleasure or pain of others, he will often be disposed to give up a pleasure in order to relieve pain, or to make another happy. All such impulses and acts should receive their due reward of affectionate encouragement. He should be made to feel that such things, above all others, win for him our esteem; and his own feeling will teach him that self-denial has its reward. His imagination should be excited by brief and vivid anecdotes of those who have given up their pleasure to benefit mankind; but particularly of Him so humble and so gentle, the friend of little children, and so like one that little children would love; who gave up all for the good of men; and rejecting the bright road of ambition and of royal power, took up the bitter and humiliating cross. But we must guard against any unnatural forcing. We must beware of exciting a false and calculating benevolence. Every act of kindness in the child should be followed by its precise natural consequences, both painful and pleasant. All education ought to lead the mind to a more perfect acquaintance with the realities of nature and society—the real properties of things, the real consequences of actions. If a child has willingly sacrificed his own enjoyment for another, he must suffer the loss, and find his reward in the pleasure of doing the kindness and of seeing the happiness he produces. But if we, as a reward for his benevolence, pamper the appetite which he has denied—if we restore the apple or orange which he has given up that he might bestow a penny in charity, we do much to destroy the good of his action and to teach him the trick of hypocrisy. On the next occasion he will expect his loss to be made good, and he will readily please his teacher, or his mama, by be-

nevolence which costs him nothing. If we would avoid this, we must be content to see the power of self-control at first very feeble. By apportioning its trials to its strength, it will grow until the enlightenment of the intellect and the increased appreciation of enjoyments other than sensual confirm it into a ruling principle of action.

Passing over appetites, such as that for intoxicating liquors, which may be called artificial, since they are acquired, and which spring only from that general desire of excitement which a good education would otherwise satisfy, it seems not unsuitable, in this place, to refer to another powerful animal impulse, more properly a characteristic of mature life, but which requires much care in the management of the ideas connected with it at an earlier period than is commonly supposed. The impulse and ideas of sex form an essential part of human nature, which, whether it be attended to or neglected, will be sure to develop itself. There is a miserably false delicacy in parents and teachers which prevents them from communicating with children on this subject. Natural inquiries are parried and baffled, or answered with falsehood, by those who might state the truth with perfect purity and safety; and in consequence, the ideas which can not be excluded, are obtained through channels which convey corruption along with the information. The mischiefs of this course are fearful. The matters which are so carefully avoided by instructors and parents, are freely talked over and joked about by servants and elder playfellows. Unspeakable evils to mind and body are the consequence. The instructor, or the parent, must often know what is going forward; but he willfully shuts his eyes to what seems irremediable; yet, when the son, or pupil, becomes openly profligate, the guardian of his youth thinks himself only unfortunate, as if it was not the natural and necessary consequence of his own criminal neglect. There is no part of education which has been not merely so much neglected, but so resolutely avoided, as this; and hence, there is no one source from which a deeper and broader current of vice and misery flows through society. The destructive effects of that perpetual movement under the surface, which the decent hypocrisies of society keep out of view, exceed infinitely in amount its more public and glaring consequences. But even these latter—embodied, as it were, in one wretched class, living examples of physical and mental ruin—are so appalling, that society could receive no greater blessing, than some purer and more enlightened educational management which would stop them at the source.

This wants simply that the difficulty shall be fairly grappled with, and that instructors shall not willfully surrender any part of the confidence of their pupils, by want of frankness upon matters which others, with different feelings, will be found ready to discuss. They must speak unreservedly, seriously, and with perfect purity of thought, so as to keep away the piquant and attractive associations of secrecy and jocularity. The physical and moral bearings of the subject should be fully explained: and thus, by ideas addressed to the reason, while the feelings and imagination are at rest, we may plant the only real safeguard of purity in the breast. Minds, whose natural curiosity is thus satisfied, without any prurient excitement of imagination, and who have received through the intellect just notions of the moral and physical evils of unlawful indulgence, would, from reason and taste alike, repel the communications of profligate companions.

In the management of children at the earliest period of life, we have to con-

tend with an irritability which is then the necessary and useful attendant of their fragile structure and helpless condition; but which, with a little neglect in childhood, will grow into an uncontrollable bad temper in mature life. The cries of an infant are the language of nature, given to supply the place of the yet impossible words, in communicating its wants to its protectors. Its first cries are from pain of some kind. The moment it is relieved they cease. When the cries for assistance are disregarded or rudely repressed, the first feeling of anger arises at the disappointment of the expected relief. The cries are increased with more bitterness and intensity, until they are perhaps hushed by terror or physical exhaustion. If the first attendant of an infant be herself ill-tempered, she can hardly fail to make the child so. Her changeful moods, her fondling and harshness, will perpetually disappoint his expectations. The occasions of ill-humor will be frequent; and his ill-humor, being troublesome, is likely to excite hers. Thus his outbreaks will continually call down the very treatment most likely to confirm them into habits. The proper management of the temper requires that the child should be surrounded from the first by a steady and enlightened affection. The first movements of its irritable nature require all the softness and patience of a mother. The occasions of irritability should, as far as possible, be foreseen and avoided. Clothes too tight, or not sufficiently warm; unnecessary dressings and undressings—these, and a hundred apparent trifles, which might be prevented, are to the child pain, and nothing more. When pain does exist from any cause, it should be at once attended to, promptly relieved, and the irritation set at rest, by affectionate soothing. Every instant that irritation, arising *from a real cause*, is suffered to continue, tends to fix it in the character. This, however, is never likely where there is affection acting upon principle. The first gleams of thought in the child will check his disposition to be angry with those who love him. As he grows, the operation of a uniform system of treatment will teach him to regulate his expectations of the future. Indulgence, however, has its peculiar danger. When the cries of the infant procure relief from pain, crying becomes associated with the satisfaction of its wants, and is resorted to when there is no pain, for the gratification of some whim, such as to ill-managed children are occurring incessantly. If this be given way to, the association is confirmed, and crying becomes the regular mode of obtaining what is desired. It is found to be an instrument of power, and it is used tyrannically. The mother and the household are subjected to no easy yoke. In this manner, unwise affection is as likely to spoil the temper as capricious severity. We must avoid both. A practiced eye can distinguish between the cry which springs from real pain, and the mechanical imitation of it which is used for the gratification of a whim. Pain should be affectionately attended to; but a fit of crying for a plaything or a sweetmeat should never obtain the least satisfaction. If it is found useless, it will soon be discontinued, and cheerfulness and good humor, as more effectual means of gratification, will become the habits. Before we reach this point, we may have to witness some bursts of temper, and no little violent sobbing; but these will rapidly disappear. We need not fear the growth of unkind feelings in the child's mind from such treatment. He will soon feel the real affection which dictates it, and which he feels in so many other ways. His sagacity, so acute in all that relates to himself, will discover that there is a real anxiety to make him happy. This will be certain to call forth the best feelings of his na-

ture; and the fixed system by which he finds himself governed, assuming the character of indispensable necessity, will prevent those innumerable contests and uncertainties which try the temper of children beyond their power of control.

Closely connected with the foregoing is the working of another principle, which shows itself at a very early period. Almost as early as we can examine, we trace a remarkable difference between children in respect to firmness or flexibility of character. Some are soft and impressible as wax; others evince a stubborn tenacity of their ideas and purposes, which the whole force of authority often contends with in vain. Ordinary people, disliking trouble, think the former are exactly what children ought to be, and augur the happiest results from their pliancy and docility. The others, who are often the choice spirits of the earth, the men of original character, with force of will to think and do, are set down as unmanageable, wayward, good for no useful purpose, and they labor under the stigma, until circumstances bring them to the work they are destined for, when the guardians of their infancy tardily and with difficulty recognize their powers. Many a defect and infirmity do such men carry to their high functions, which might have been prevented by a little more knowledge of human character in their instructors. Many a distortion of thought or feeling remains through life, from the injudicious opposition, reproof, or contempt, to which their misunderstood peculiarities exposed them.

The child, however, must learn obedience. The mature man, in the vigor of body and intellect, must know how to obey; for the feeble frame and imperfect intelligence of the child, it is absolutely indispensable. We must begin from the first. Real affection, working through an enlightened judgment, will secure implicit obedience, and nothing else will. A child soon learns to submit to inevitable necessity. He may quarrel with the stone or the tree which impedes his progress, but soon gives over when he finds that his cries or his struggles make no change. Our resistance to him when he is wrong should bear the appearance of the same inevitable necessity. It, and indeed our whole conduct, should be as uniform and consistent as the laws of nature, or as near to this as our imperfect natures can carry it. No tears, or cries, or struggles, should move us. Without the slightest variation of temper, we must gently but inflexibly refuse to do anything for the gratification of a wrong impulse. Yielding to urgency in a single instance may overthrow the labor of months in the formation of the habit. Authority exercised in this manner will soon be submitted to without a murmur. The kind caress upon his submission, and the good consequences of obedience to the child's own happiness, which he can often perceive, will soon make ready submission a pleasanter course than obstinate entreaty, or sullenness at refusal.

Besides learning to submit quietly to our refusal of improper gratifications, he must acquire the habit of obedience to positive commands. With many children obedience will be a matter of course, or will become so with little trouble; with one of firmer texture we must proceed cautiously. We should begin, as Miss Edgeworth recommends,* with making him absolutely *do* what we desire, which must, therefore, be something that we can make him do, such as taking him to bed at a particular hour. When this has become, by frequent repetition, fixed on his mind as a thing which must be done, we may ingraft upon the habit so formed the additional one of obedience to command. In all this the look and

* See Practical Education, Vol. I., p. 220. 8vo. 1811.

tend with an irritability which is then the necessary and useful attendant of their fragile structure and helpless condition; but which, with a little neglect in childhood, will grow into an uncontrollable bad temper in mature life. The cries of an infant are the language of nature, given to supply the place of the yet impossible words, in communicating its wants to its protectors. Its first cries are from pain of some kind. The moment it is relieved they cease. When the cries for assistance are disregarded or rudely repressed, the first feeling of anger arises at the disappointment of the expected relief. The cries are increased with more bitterness and intensity, until they are perhaps hushed by terror or physical exhaustion. If the first attendant of an infant be herself ill-tempered, she can hardly fail to make the child so. Her changeful moods, her fondling and harshness, will perpetually disappoint his expectations. The occasions of ill-humor will be frequent; and his ill-humor, being troublesome, is likely to excite hers. Thus his outbreaks will continually call down the very treatment most likely to confirm them into habits. The proper management of the temper requires that the child should be surrounded from the first by a steady and enlightened affection. The first movements of its irritable nature require all the softness and patience of a mother. The occasions of irritability should, as far as possible, be foreseen and avoided. Clothes too tight, or not sufficiently warm; unnecessary dressings and undressings—these, and a hundred apparent trifles, which might be prevented, are to the child pain, and nothing more. When pain does exist from any cause, it should be at once attended to, promptly relieved, and the irritation set at rest, by affectionate soothing. Every instant that irritation, arising *from a real cause*, is suffered to continue, tends to fix it in the character. This, however, is never likely where there is affection acting upon principle. The first gleams of thought in the child will check his disposition to be angry with those who love him. As he grows, the operation of a uniform system of treatment will teach him to regulate his expectations of the future. Indulgence, however, has its peculiar danger. When the cries of the infant procure relief from pain, crying becomes associated with the satisfaction of its wants, and is resorted to when there is no pain, for the gratification of some whim, such as to ill-managed children are occurring incessantly. If this be given way to, the association is confirmed, and crying becomes the regular mode of obtaining what is desired. It is found to be an instrument of power, and it is used tyrannically. The mother and the household are subjected to no easy yoke. In this manner, unwise affection is as likely to spoil the temper as capricious severity. We must avoid both. A practiced eye can distinguish between the cry which springs from real pain, and the mechanical imitation of it which is used for the gratification of a whim. Pain should be affectionately attended to; but a fit of crying for a plaything or a sweetmeat should never obtain the least satisfaction. If it is found useless, it will soon be discontinued, and cheerfulness and good humor, as more effectual means of gratification, will become the habits. Before we reach this point, we may have to witness some bursts of temper, and no little violent sobbing; but these will rapidly disappear. We need not fear the growth of unkind feelings in the child's mind from such treatment. He will soon feel the real affection which dictates it, and which he feels in so many other ways. His sagacity, so acute in all that relates to himself, will discover that there is a real anxiety to make him happy. This will be certain to call forth the best feelings of his na-

ture; and the fixed system by which he finds himself governed, assuming the character of indispensable necessity, will prevent those innumerable contests and uncertainties which try the temper of children beyond their power of control.

Closely connected with the foregoing is the working of another principle, which shows itself at a very early period. Almost as early as we can examine, we trace a remarkable difference between children in respect to firmness or flexibility of character. Some are soft and impressible as wax; others evince a stubborn tenacity of their ideas and purposes, which the whole force of authority often contends with in vain. Ordinary people, disliking trouble, think the former are exactly what children ought to be, and augur the happiest results from their pliancy and docility. The others, who are often the choice spirits of the earth, the men of original character, with force of will to think and do, are set down as unmanageable, wayward, good for no useful purpose, and they labor under the stigma, until circumstances bring them to the work they are destined for, when the guardians of their infancy tardily and with difficulty recognize their powers. Many a defect and infirmity do such men carry to their high functions, which might have been prevented by a little more knowledge of human character in their instructors. Many a distortion of thought or feeling remains through life, from the injudicious opposition, reproof, or contempt, to which their misunderstood peculiarities exposed them.

The child, however, must learn obedience. The mature man, in the vigor of body and intellect, must know how to obey; for the feeble frame and imperfect intelligence of the child, it is absolutely indispensable. We must begin from the first. Real affection, working through an enlightened judgment, will secure implicit obedience, and nothing else will. A child soon learns to submit to inevitable necessity. He may quarrel with the stone or the tree which impedes his progress, but soon gives over when he finds that his cries or his struggles make no change. Our resistance to him when he is wrong should bear the appearance of the same inevitable necessity. It, and indeed our whole conduct, should be as uniform and consistent as the laws of nature, or as near to this as our imperfect natures can carry it. No tears, or cries, or struggles, should move us. Without the slightest variation of temper, we must gently but inflexibly refuse to do anything for the gratification of a wrong impulse. Yielding to urgency in a single instance may overthrow the labor of months in the formation of the habit. Authority exercised in this manner will soon be submitted to without a murmur. The kind caress upon his submission, and the good consequences of obedience to the child's own happiness, which he can often perceive, will soon make ready submission a pleasanter course than obstinate entreaty, or sullenness at refusal.

Besides learning to submit quietly to our refusal of improper gratifications, he must acquire the habit of obedience to positive commands. With many children obedience will be a matter of course, or will become so with little trouble; with one of firmer texture we must proceed cautiously. We should begin, as Miss Edgeworth recommends,* with making him absolutely *do* what we desire, which must, therefore, be something that we *can* make him do, such as taking him to bed at a particular hour. When this has become, by frequent repetition, fixed on his mind as a thing which must be done, we may ingraft upon the habit so formed the additional one of obedience to command. In all this, the look and

* See Practical Education, Vol. I., p. 220. 8vo. 1811.

tone of true affection will have infinite power. Obedience will seem to the child a necessary result of his affection for his teacher; and so it will be a joyful, eager obedience, springing from the heart and a blessing to both.

To make the obedience most complete and most healthful for the moral nature of the child, our commands, our whole system of conduct, should, if possible, present, as before stated, the uniformity and consistency of the laws of nature. There should be no bursts of extravagant kindness and fondling, to be followed by fits of cold neglect; no overweening attention to the little prattler to-day, and ill-tempered rejection of his playfulness to-morrow; no promises made incautiously at night, to be laughed away or reluctantly performed in the morning; no menaces uttered in passion and forgotten when the gust has blown over. Promises should be performed in the spirit and to the letter; threats, if we use them, executed with absolute exactness. There should be a total absence of caprice or variableness. The child should know what he has to expect—what consequences will be sure to follow certain acts. This smooth, fixed, harmonious revolution of the machinery about him, will prevent the thought of disobedience, and, at the same time, the obedience which it will tend to form will not break his spirit, or impair his energy. Capricious, varying commands, unexpected thwartings, bring about those unhappy contests with positive children, by which they are either fixed in a sullen, incurable doggedness, or forcibly reduced to submission, at the cost of that invaluable tenacity of purpose, which is the prime element of success, either in action or speculation. It is a miserable mistake that we must "break a child's will," as the first step in education. On the contrary, we should, by all means, strengthen it, but habituate it to the control of the reason and the higher feelings. If, by a severe and capricious treatment, we could succeed in crushing that original tendency in the mind to abide by its purposes, to encounter opposition for their sake, and to cling to them in proportion to the force brought against them, what would remain? Of what avail would it be that a mind thus emasculated was molded into the form of virtue—that it had a knowledge of science—a love of justice—a sense of harmony and beauty? What would be the security for the continuance of such qualities, rooted in mere obedience and perhaps imitation, where the center of nourishment and self-support was gone? Why should not external influence, like that which gave them life, destroy them? What likelihood of their withstanding the gusts of opinion sweeping hither and thither over the face of society? What possible destiny, beyond mere passive contemplation, could they fulfill in a world of earnest and vigorous action? No. We can not spare a jot of that self-sustaining, self-impelling power from the mind. In the great benefactors of our race it has shone most conspicuously, and even in ordinary life it is an essential condition of a steady and prosperous career.

We must endeavor, then, to secure obedience through the affections, and by a treatment from the first so uniform, that it will enter into and modify the child's ideas and expectations, as they are modified by the regular succession of cause and effect in the natural world. Further, by giving perfect freedom when it is possible, and by encouraging children to work out and act upon their own conclusions, we must cultivate self-reliance and decision of character. This, like all superior qualities, is not to be, as it were, stuck into the mind from without, but unfolded from the working of its own faculties. The noble plant must acquire its beauty and its strength from those internal forces which God

has given. The skillful cultivator takes for his guidance the hints of Nature herself—now aiding her efforts by a sprinkling of encouragement, and now by the removal of some external obstacle which impedes her development.

Another original impulse necessary for the preservation of the human being, but without careful management a fruitful source of unhappiness, is fear or terror. What has once given a child pain is dreaded; the idea of the pain is called up by the sight of the object. New and unusual objects are frequently causes of pain to children; and any new or unusual object becomes invested with associations of pain, and produces terror. This feeling is so easily excited in children, and it so conveniently puts to flight previous feelings of petulance, or of anxiety to have something inconvenient, that it is almost constantly abused. It is the regular resource of laziness, ignorance, and ill-temper, in attendants. The child is terrified into doing, or terrified from doing, whatever his nurse, or instructor, feel inconvenient or otherwise. According to the general law, the feeling thus frequently exercised is strengthened, and the mind, of course, permanently enfeebled. A thousand false and fantastic terrors are thus implanted in the minds of children,—dark clouds that hover continually in view through life, and darken the sunshine of many otherwise happy hours. The energy of the mind is seriously impaired. The imagination, exercised by frequent fears, is perpetually suggesting dangers in any deviation from the beaten track of habit, and even in the most ordinary circumstances. The free, courageous spirit of investigation, the great spring of intellectual advancement, is weakened, if not altogether destroyed.

The education of this impulse is mismanaged in various ways—by an absolutely reckless and wanton excitement of the feeling in children—by a capricious severity, which, by its uncertainty, keeps terror almost constantly alive, and uses it as an instrument to effect its purposes—by an extreme and morbid caution, which fears to let children do any thing for themselves, lest they may receive some trifling hurt or damage; clothes the commonest acts and objects with terrors; and, by stopping examination, hinders the acquirement of the knowledge and habits which are a better safeguard against danger than a thousand anxious parents or instructors.

With respect to the first—the excitement of children's fears without a distinct purpose, or for amusement—it scarcely deserves remark. It is so gratuitously mischievous, such a wicked sporting with the lifelong happiness of human beings, that no mind of the least sense or good feeling can hesitate to condemn it. With respect to the second—the management of children by their terrors, whether by the nurse with her threats of monsters and ghosts, or the instructor with his corporeal and other punishments—it has already been seen how obedience may be attained in a better way. It is enough here to remark, that an education of terror, although it may partially succeed in causing intellectual acquirement, must be morally destructive. It will instill cunning and falsehood, the vices of the slave. Its most favorable results will be the production of men, clever, smooth, obedient instruments, capable, when the pressure of authority is removed, of good or evil, but with a considerable bias towards the latter. In an atmosphere of terror the nobler impulses wither and die, or if by unusual strength they survive, their growth will catch some distortion from the blighting process they have gone through.

The remaining cause by which children are made feeble and cowardly, is the

feverish anxiety about their safety in those who have them in charge. When extreme affection, as it frequently happens, takes this form, it is scarcely less fatal to the best interests of its objects than injudicious severity. The little beings, full of joyous activity, moved by the healthful impulses of nature, with their senses all awake, surrounded by objects which are to them full of wonder and delight, are perpetually carrying on processes of education beyond the reach of human art to equal. Observation, abstraction, reasoning, invention, are doing their rapid work, while the young investigators are running in the way of innumerable dangers. The anxious parent is not content with this education of Nature's choosing, but must interpose her protection between the child and the knowledge, which, by the ordinance of Nature, every one must learn from his own experience. He must not go here, for fear of knocking his head against the table,—nor there, lest he may tumble over the footstool,—nor play with a glass, lest it may break and cut him,—nor approach the hot water, lest it may scald his fingers;—he must beware of the dog, because it may bite—of the cat, because it can scratch—and of fifty other things, frogs, mice, beetles, &c., for no reason but because his mother has an aversion to them. All these things the mother does her best to plant as objects of dread, and too often with success. Her incessant alarms are caught up by the child, and his terrors are perpetually excited. The feeling of fear acquires the rapidity and certainty of habit; the child becomes helpless, his active power almost paralyzed, and his powers of observation enfeebled by the spectres raised up in the way of their exercise. In his intercourse with others, his cowardice tempts to low tricks and base compliances, and he lives under the most wretched and agonizing slavery to his fears.

It is of immense importance that a child's physical courage should be strengthened, and that he should be trained to habits of steady circumspection and decision, in new or dangerous circumstances. We must preserve him from the contamination of groundless fears, as we would from a pestilence. Instead of perpetual injunction to avoid this or that, he should be allowed, as far as it can be done without serious danger, to obtain his knowledge of what things are safe, and what are hurtful for himself. His proceedings should be carefully superintended, but (for various reasons) his attention should be as little as possible drawn to the fact that he is watched. If he get a fall, or a wetting, or burn his finger, or draw a little blood, the pain will be worth innumerable injunctions to avoid similar dangers. The memory of it will be a sentinel which no accident will call away from his post. We should do nothing for the child which we can lead him to do for himself. We should lead him to examine new objects with his own senses. If any symptoms of fear present themselves, we should remove them by showing him the harmlessness of what he dreads. A little management will set groundless fears at rest. While the root is yet loose in the soil, it may be easily, and without injury, pulled up. The child's free course of experience will give him the blended habit of caution and confidence. No slavish apprehensions will mar his natural frankness. He will be guarded against real perils by habits of self-possession. Our explanations of the precise nature of danger, when there is any, will be thoughtfully attended to. Our warnings, when they are absolutely necessary, will have tenfold force, by not being wasted on frequent and frivolous occasions.

One other impulse of great importance in childhood, and of almost universal

influence in mature life, deserves notice,—the desire of the favorable opinion of others, or of being the subject of attention. There is no question that this feeling shows itself in infancy. The power of praise and attention over a child is soon perceived, and it is, in most cases, made the mainspring of scholastic education. If we let other feelings grow up by neglect, we often deliberately encourage this, and make it the principal motive of action,—the basis of the moral character. We stimulate to intellectual labor, not by the purifying and ennobling pleasure of knowledge, but by adventitious rewards and distinctions. We hold up to youth wealth and high place as the chief goods, because they will secure the regard and respect of society. We show by our actions—always more effective than our precepts—that our master-feeling is the worship of respectability. It is worth considering whether this principle deserves the supremacy which is practically accorded to it, and if not, how it ought to be regulated by education.

A child is early plied with stimulants to its vanity. Its pretty face—its beautiful eyes—its agreeable prattle—its nice dress—its clever feats—are all loaded with encomiums. Schools take up the growing feeling, and strengthen it with prizes, honors, public declamations, and exhibitions, by which the young heart is swelled with vanity, and the craving for attention and praise made more voracious. The tendencies of home and society are, for the most part, to the aggravation of this sensitiveness to opinion. The plans of life are formed under its influence. It insinuates itself into every fibre of the moral being; and all faculties and feelings become subservient to its gratification. In public life it may communicate an immense energy, but such power can not be trusted. It will play courtier in the monarchy and demagogue in the republic. Its veering will be precisely regulated by the shifting winds of passion in the holders of power. Whatever be the existing evils of society, from a man whose master-passion this is, they are more likely to receive aggravation than check. The enlightenment of its ignorance, the destruction of popular fallacies, the upholding despised truths for a brighter day, must be accomplished by men who can bear neglect or unpopularity, from a deep conviction of truth, and a steadfast adherence to the lasting interests of mankind.

The effects of a slavish deference to opinion, upon individual happiness, are perhaps of more consequence, as they are more intimately felt, than those which society experiences from the influence of its leading minds. In private life, one whose education has made this feeling all-powerful has no peace. The free play of his affections, the sole sources of happiness, is controlled by incidents fixing his attention perpetually on himself. The grace of unconsciousness, the delight of self-abandonment, he can not know. Society has a thousand stings for his trembling sensitiveness;—fancied neglects, imagined contempts, possible absurdities, the success of rivals. Now and then an hour of triumph sets him ablaze, and whatever is best in his nature seems to flow out freely under the excitement; but when the temporary incentives are withdrawn, the return of daily life and its common duties contracts the expansion into the hard, cold selfishness, which is the basis of vanity.

Those who admit that the morality of Christ ought to form the busis of character, must feel bound, in education, to make this principle subject to others. Christianity requires that a far higher motive than the good opinion of men should be the mainspring of our actions. It was itself an insurrection against

ancient and cherished prejudices. It admitted of no compromise; it imperatively demanded that the opinion of men should be set at nought; that contempt, calumny, injustice,—all the penalties of rebellion against established usages,—should be met and borne without repining, by the strength of that love for the erring children of the same common Father, which triumphed on the cross. The model of this high morality remains and will remain—ages may pass before society shall answer its lofty requirements; but unless we fling it aside and convert its shrine to some meaner worship, we can not deliberately disobey the ordinance to bring "little children" within the sanctuary.

We must, however, use the stimulus of praise in education, and obtain the command of the instrument, or others will seize it to thwart our purposes. We must praise, but praise sparingly, that it may be of value. A very little from those who give with judgment and exact justice will have great power. We should praise affectionately, that the gratification which it gives may be associated with the kind feelings. Our praise should be regulated by the nature of the action that calls it forth, and be always most warm for moral excellence. Here, as in all other treatment, the peculiarities of individual character must guide us; a touch is enough for the quick mettle of one child—much spurring will be required to remove the sluggishness of another. Prizes and distinctions —matters which provoke competition, and set in antagonism those between whom Christianity requires love—are mischievous. The winners and the losers are equally liable to injury. The pride of success may be as unchristian and as unfavorable to happiness, as the burning of envious disappointment.

The working of these various conflicting impulses, which seldom present themselves but in combination, makes soon apparent the presence of feelings to which we give the name of conscience, or the moral sense. Without entering into the controversy respecting their origin, whether they are instinctive impulses, or whether their gradual formation from simpler elements may be traced, it is enough for the present purpose that their existence, at a very early period of life, is admitted. They are real feelings; and, like other feelings, may be greatly modified by education. The contradictory forms in which they appear among different nations and different individuals has led to the denial of the reality of moral distinctions; but if the discrepancies do not warrant this conclusion, they at least establish the power of circumstances over the development of the feelings. We may enlist them in support of empty ceremonies and unintelligible creeds, or give their sanction to the hatreds of sect and party. No animosity—individual, sectarian, or national—should, either by direct precept or casual remark, receive such sanction. The great Christian principle of the brotherhood of men will tolerate no exception. Our aim should be to give depth and clearness to the moral emotions. The mind should be led to regard the moral qualities of actions, and to reason upon them. It should be taught to look back on what it has done: and, for the sake of methodizing its ideas, to record the results of its self-examination. The exercise of the moral sense will give it strength, and will constantly tend to harmonize the impulses with the moral judgments. The blending of the two would give the rectitude and steadiness of moral calculation to impulse; the passionate energy and beauty of impulse to morality. Instead of the unhappy conflict between liking and duty, which, when the passions are matured before the sense of right is awakened, often continues through life, wasting the internal force and producing vacilla-

tion, despondency, and innumerable failures, the mind would move in a direct line with the impetus of its utmost power,—its highest delight and its highest duty being one and the same.

These notices will be sufficient to indicate what is meant by moral education. It must be unnecessary to repeat, that the foregoing remarks are not meant to present any thing like a complete view or outline of education. If there were no other reasons against making such an attempt in this place, it would, in fact, be impossible from the state in which education at present exists. As an art, or body of rules founded on science, it is too imperfectly developed to admit of an outline being given. There are systems in actual operation distinguished by partial excellencies; valuable hints of physical, intellectual, and moral management, in various books; and the works of Hartley, Stewart, Brown, and Mill, contain expositions of the laws of mind very suggestive of the art that ought to be built upon them; but nowhere has this scattered knowledge been reduced to a system. Nor perhaps is the time come,—until the ground is more accurately marked by continued observation, and the materials collected by additional and better directed industry,—to set about raising the structure.

It is too true that education now realizes but little of the good which an examination of the principles on which it ought to proceed would lead us to hope for. Except the mechanical processes of reading and writing, the mass of society derives little from its *designed* education. The ignorance of the poorer classes is scarcely touched by the feeble educational machinery brought to bear against it. The children of the middle ranks acquire some small knowledge which is useful in their worldly callings; and the "educated classes" obtain a smattering of the dead languages, though most of them lose it within a few years by neglect. In every class there are individuals who, by their own energy, make considerable acquirements; but the effect of education is to be estimated by the condition of the majority subject to its influence. Tried by this test, existing education is all but universally inefficient. Real knowledge is not derived from schools or instructors, but from unaided observation both by boys and men; and their morals are as little affected by the dry precepts and empty routine which make up their religious education. Men's governing principles spring from their *undesigned* education; not from what has been *said to* them, but from what has been often unconsciously *done before* them, and from the workings of their own minds unsympathized with, and therefore unguided by their instructors. Hence, learned and studious men send forth pupils confirmed in vicious dispositions, because they do not see the powerful education received by boys from each other, which goes on under their own eyes. Innumerable are the abortive results of the most anxious efforts in education. Men, distinguished by every virtue, not seldom have the evening of their days imbittered by the ingratitude and profligacy of their offspring. It would seem, indeed, in most cases, a matter of chance whether children grow up dull or clear-headed: with good, or with evil dispositions; or, as if there were no fixed principles by which slow intellect might be unfolded, or man be led to love virtue rather than vice.

But the intellectual and moral nature of man is not an anomaly in a world of harmony and order. It is no shapeless and unintelligible chaos, where good and evil are in perpetual commotion, without object or law. It is a creation surpassing all others in the nicety of its adaptation to the circumstances in

which it is placed; and possessing seeds which, under a right culture, would burst forth into forms of yet unimagined power and beauty. But education fails, miserably fails—it brings no germ of intellectual or moral greatness to maturity; and for this all-sufficient reason, that those to whom its business is intrusted are incompetent to the task; to the most arduous duties they bring the least qualifications. The highest interests are intrusted to the meanest hands. Society tolerates an unfitness in those who profess to form its young minds, which it would not endure in the lowest menial offices that minister to its material interests or enjoyments. For, if there be any act which, more than another, requires in those who practice it a high union of skill and character, that art, beyond a question, is education. In no department of exertion does success so absolutely depend on the personal qualifications of the workman. "As is the master, so is the school," says the Prussian maxim; a few words saturated, as it were, with truth. The system is indeed truly important; but the main part of a system is, what is in the *master's mind*. The form—the external material adjuncts—of a system are of themselves nothing; its living spirit, that part of it which has got into the thoughts and feelings of him who is to work it, is everything.

The process of education, whether at home or in school, is perpetually going on; the instructor may guide but can not stop it. Whether he is attentive or neglectful, observation is at work, intellect is developing, character is forming, and all under the most powerful influences from him, whether for good or evil. What he says earnestly, and, above all, what he does, is graving itself on the tenacious memory of childhood. His inconsistencies, partialities, ill-temper, tyranny, selfishness, leave lasting traces. If his dispositions are unfavorable, no check from without can remedy the evil. Parents can control him little. They are managed through their prejudices at the expense of their children. A superior authority, with the most perfect machinery of inspection, will fail to get the work of good men performed by bad ones. Its laws will be no restraint on him to whom their execution is intrusted; its best systems fruitless, where they can not insure states of mind according with their spirit. The government of children must be a despotism, and it must have all the vices of a despotism, if we can not purify the depositaries of supreme power. But, if the instructor be one who is filled with a consciousness of his high duties, how mighty is his influence! He is the fountain of instruction, and the prime source of enjoyment to his pupils. Their little difficulties are brought to him, and in his solution rest. His casual remarks sink into their minds. His opinions on men and things make their way by the double force of authority and affection. His companionship, his sympathy, are above all things delightful. The imitative principle, so powerful in early life, is incessantly in action. The children are daily assimilating parts of his nature—making it one with their own. What an influence is his over their future destiny!

Education is, in truth, the first concern of society, and it ought to have the energies of society's best minds. The Athenians, who had glimpses of whatever was most glorious, did in this matter leave mankind a great example. Teaching was the honorable occupation of their greatest men. The brightest minds of Athenian Philosophy were the instructors of Athenian youth; so keenly was the truth felt, that the mature intelligence and moral power, acquired in the struggles of a distinguished life, could perform no higher function than that of rearing up the same precious fruits in the rising minds of the community.

III. THE DIGNITY OF THE SCHOOLMASTER'S WORK.*

BY SENOR D. F. SARMIENTO,

Director of Primary Instruction in Chili, now Minister from the Argentine Republic to U. S. Gov't.

INANIMATE nature and human society present to us at every step examples of immense effects produced by obscure and sometimes infinitely small causes. The sea polypi—living beings which scarcely have a form—have raised from the fathomless depths to the surface of the waters one-half of the islands now flourishing and inhabited by thousands of men in Oceanica. The gothic cathedrals of Europe, the wonder of architecture, with their multiplicity of columns, statues, pinnacles, and wealth of ornament sculptured in stone, have been the work of obscure artists, of thousands of masons, members of a confraternity who wrought without wages in fulfillment of a duty, a vow, or a creed, one generation succeeding another, the apprentices after the masters, until they left upon the earth a monument of the intelligence, the beauty, the daring, and the sublimity of man's genius. The schoolmasters are, in modern society, those obscure artificers to whom is confided the greatest work that man can execute, viz.: the perfection of the civilization of the human race, begun from time immemorial in a few favored portions of the earth, transmitted from century to century from one nation to another, continued from generation to generation in one class of society, but only in the present century, and in some enlightened nations, extended to all classes and to every individual. The fact of an entire people—men and women, adults and children, rich and poor—educated and possessing the means of education, is a new thing in the world's history; and although even as yet but imperfectly effected, it is nevertheless on the eve of consummation in some of the Christian nations of Europe and America, not alone in countries which have been for a long time inhabited, but in territories whose culture dates as from yesterday, showing that the universal diffusion of culture is not so much the result of time as it is the work of the will, and the natural outgrowth of a nation's necessities.

---

* Prepared to be read before the American Institute of Instruction in 1865.

The mass of knowledge at present possessed by man, the result of centuries of observation, of comparison, and of study, is the labor of wise men; and the results of this eternal, multiplex, endless labor, are within the reach of every individual of the entire species. The press presents this knowledge in the form of a book, and whoever reads the book with all the precedents for understanding it, knows as much as they who wrote it. The humble country schoolmaster places, therefore, the whole science of our epoch within the reach of the farmer's son whom he teaches to read. The master does not invent the science, nor does he teach it; he may be ignorant of it in its entire magnitude; perchance he does not understand it beyond its most simple rudiments; yet he opens the closed doors to the new-born man and shows him the way; he introduces him, who receives his lessons, to the whole universe, to all past centuries, to all nations, to the whole mass of knowledge which humanity has treasured up.

When the clergyman spills the water of baptism on the head of the infant, he makes him a member of a congregation which perpetuates centuries through generations, and unites him to God, the origin of all things, the Father and Creator of the human race. The schoolmaster, when he puts the spelling-book into the child's hands, separates him irrevocably from the mass of animal creation, constitutes him an integral member of the civilized nations of the world, and unites him to the written tradition of humanity, which forms the fund of knowledge that has been increasing from generation to generation. The clergyman takes away that original sin with which the child was born; the master, the stain of that barbarism which is the original state of man; for to learn to read is to possess the key to that immense legacy of labors, of studies, of experiments, of discoveries, of truths, which form the soul, the mind, of humanity. For the savage there is no history, no arts, no science. His individual memory does not reach beyond the times of his father and grandfather within the limited sphere of his tribe, as transmitted by oral tradition. But the book is the memory of the human species during thousands of centuries. With the book in our hands we remember Moses, Homer, Socrates, Plato, Cæsar, Confucius; we know word by word, fact by fact, what they said or did; we have lived, then, in all times, in all countries, and have known all the men who were great, either by their deeds, or by their thoughts, or by their discoveries. And as if God wished to show man the importance of the written word, the most ancient book in the world, the model book, the Bible, has come down to us through nearly

four thousand years, has been translated into one hundred languages, is now read by all the nations of the world, and is uniting in its way all the nations in one common civilization; and when, after centuries of barbarism, the new birth of science widened the sphere of action and of intelligence upon the globe, the publication of the Bible was the first essay of printing, and the reading of the Bible became the foundation of that popular education, which has changed the character of the countries which possessed it; and finally, with the Bible in their hand, and in consequence of the Bible, the English emigrants went to America to found there the most powerful States in the world—the most powerful because the most free, and because there every one, without distinction of age, of sex, of class or condition, knows how to read all that has been deposited in books by the science, the talent, the genius, the experience, and the observation of all men, of all nations, and all times.

An entire course of education may be reduced to this simple expression: *to read what is written, to be acquainted with what is known, and to extend the work of civilization with one's own fund of observation.*

This is what a teacher teaches in the school; this is his occupation in society. The judge punishes the convicted crime without correcting the delinquent; the clergyman corrects moral error without touching the cause which gave it birth; the military officer represses public disorder without improving the confused ideas which excited it, or the incapacities which stimulated it. The schoolmaster alone, of the functionaries who act upon society, is placed in an adequate position to cure radically the evils of society. The adult is beyond the sphere of his watchfulness. He is placed on the threshhold of life to guide those who are about to enter it. The example of the father, the ignorant affection of the mother, the poverty of the family, social inequalities, determine the character, vices, virtues, diverse, and opposite habits in each child that comes to his school. He has but a single morality for all, one rule for all, one example only for all. He rules them, molds and equalizes them, impressing them with the same spirit and the same ideas, teaching them the same things, showing them the same examples; and the day when all the children of the same country shall pass through this preparation for entrance into social life, and when all the teachers shall knowingly and conscientiously fulfill their mission, in that happy day a nation will be a family with the same spirit, with the same morality, with the same instruction, with the same fitness for work, without any other gradation than that which rests upon genius, talent, activity, or patience.

The schoolmaster in Europe and in the United States perpetuates the moral, intelligent, and civilized traditions of his predecessors. But the school is followed by the workshop, which is but another school of labor and art, perpetuating acquired knowledge and developing the manufacturing resources of the country; or by the halls of learning, where the past sciences are perpetuated and elaborated to greater perfection. The arts and trades, practical results of the sciences educate the people, giving them the means of helping themselves and providing for their own wants. The fine arts in Italy, the monuments of ancient and modern genius, the masterworks in painting, sculpture, and architecture which are seen every where educate the multitudes who behold them, raising them to a knowledge, though confused, of the history of the human greatness of which they never believe themselves disinherited. In France, besides these causes, the demands of that exquisite taste which is manifested in all its manufactured products educate the people, inspiring them with indescribable but certain notions of the beautiful, and enabling them to reproduce them in their daily labor. The people then, too, are educated by the army, to which all belong by the conscription; and the French army, in its traditions and in its perfection, is modern history, the genius of the nation's great men, the embodiment of its aspirations for its glory, and the test of science in its capacity to increase the power of man. Finally, the nation is educated by its discoveries in the sciences, and by the splendor which surrounds the names of its scientific and literary men; by the cheapness of books and engravings; by the fashion, and by its public feasts and spectacles. In England the people are educated by the activity of their immense manufactories, by their ingenious machinery, by their harbors covered with thousands of vessels, by the productions of all the world accumulated in their markets. They are educated by the jury, by Parliament, by the mariner who communicates with all the world, by commerce which makes all nations her tributaries, by the postal system which makes of the world an English department. Finally, they are educated by the spectacle of the most rational, most scientific and finished agriculture known, by the railroads and canals which cross the entire country, by the comfort and well-being observable in the generality of the inhabitants, by the activity which reigns in all the transactions of life, the respect and efficiency of the laws, and by the liberty of following out a purpose, petitioning for a reform, and consummating it by the united and repeated action of a majority of wills.

In the United States to all these causes united there is added, to

complete the education of the people, all those blessings produced by civilization in Europe reproduced in the United States in a larger scale and without the inconveniences and opposition which mar them there; the growing wealth without the despairing poverty; the feeling of want, but with the means of gratifying it; land at low prices; education, the church, social rights, the railroad cars, the newspaper and the ballot-box, common to all classes and to all conditions; no king nor populace, no rich class nor poor, no learned class nor ignorant, but all ordering and obeying, possessing and knowing, upon an apparent level;—where, though there are great differences, yet all feel that the acquisitions which they might envy in others may be reproduced in their own persons. The good results of their liberty and industry, the unexampled course of their prosperity, are means of popular education as complete and more efficacious than any presented by the history of the world. What effects upon the country must the imitation of its heroes and great men produce, when these are Washington, the upright; Franklin, who by morality, industry, and self-education, attained glory and eminence in scientific attainment; and as forefathers, Penn, Winthrop and the Pilgrim Fathers, Williams, and so many others, without a conqueror among them, nor a successful villain, nor a tyrant, nor a glorious criminal?

But the people of South America move in another sphere, and to show the importance of the schoolmaster in the bosom of our society, we desire to depict its principal lineaments. We are thrown between two opposite elements, and are united to them at each extreme. On some of the frontiers occupied by our Christian population, the tent of the savage appears, under whose unfinished roof nature is seen in its rudest state. The man, ferocious in his instincts; improvident of his means of existence; suspicious because ignoring causes and their effects; made inhuman by the consciousness of inferiority and impotency; rough in his tastes; immoral on account of his imperfect consciousness of right; violent in his appetites, from the difficulty of satisfying them; poor, because he does not know how to govern nature, or subject matter, or understand its laws; finally, stationary, because having no past he does not foresee a future. He lives because he was born, and he dies without leaving to his relatives either acquired property or a legacy of science, of glory, or of power. In the tribe to which he belongs, his existence is born in his person, in his person all his being expires. Such a spectacle the civilized world has not known for centuries back; and if in North America there are savages, civilization is so enlightened that their presence is rather an antagonism than an ob

stacle. It is not so among us. There are countries, as is the case in Peru and Bolivia, where the savage tribe is incorporated in the society of Christians, with his tent instead of a house, with his language opposed to the spread of the sphere of knowledge, with his ordinary dress scarcely covering his original nakedness, and destitute of all the means which civilization has put into the hands of man for his improvement and well-being. In other countries, such as Chili and the Argentine Republic, the savage, the original inhabitant of these territories, by the labors of three centuries has been domesticated, detached from the tribe, and mingling with the society of European origin, has acquired their language, their customs, and the first rudiments of culture; but in exchange, he has transmitted to our masses many of his defects, much of his old character, and many of his customs. From the American Indians we have derived the *rancho*, without doors, without furniture, uncleanly, without division into apartments, and of necessity without decorum or dignity in the family, who are huddled together in confused mixture within a contracted space, where they eat, sleep, live, work, and satisfy all their wants. From the old savage come the propensity to steal and to cheat, which appears innate in our lower classes, and the cruel appetites which barbarism had developed.

That piece of cloth which covers the untidiness of the dress and creates a partition wall between educated society and the populace —the *poncho*—is of savage origin. There is no *poncho* in the United States, and all men are equal, because the European dress—civilized, cleanly, Christian, in fact—is common to all classes. The *chiripá* is again another piece of cloth which the savages have taught the Christian to wear, thus debasing him to their own condition and exterior appearance, instead of themselves adopting our customs. I have seen a division of savage Indians, highway robbers, in the province of Santa Fé, formed by the side of divisions of Christian cavalry, and by nothing even in the dress of the riders, or in the trappings of the horses, could I at first sight distinguish those who were of European origin from those who came from the forest.

These remnants of barbarism, these semi-savage appearances, produce social and industrial results which are fatal to society in general and embarrass or are even destructive to progress, substituting sometimes in the government and administration of public affairs the native violence for civilized right, savage cruelty for Christian humanity, robbery and pillage on the highway for the guarantees of property. The immobility of our working classes *proceeds* from the same origin; their almost repugnance to the en-

joyments and conveniences of civilized life, their regardlessness of acquisition, their want of aspiration for a better condition, their resistance to the adoption of better modes of labor, and better and fuller dress. To that cause, also, may be traced the indifference with which educated society sees these relicts of a rude past perpetuated, inadequate to our present situation, pregnant with danger to the future in some places, fruitful in terrible lessons in others, unproductive of wealth and well-being every where, and a permanent obstacle to the increase and prosperity of the nation which honors with the name of citizens these stationary beings, rebels to culture, without aptitude for intelligent labor, and without discipline for the political life which our institutions impose upon us.

The schoolmaster, cast in the midst of our country population, will for a long time be there like the guard of a telegraph, with his arms crossed in the midst of the desert. His mission is to carry to the extremities the intellectual life which moves in the center. His task is to sow every year in ungrateful soil, in danger of seeing the seed trampled under the horses' feet, with the hope that a grain or two, fallen in a sheltered place, may spring up. The child, educated with so much care, will return to the bosom of the family and to the *rancho*, where the uncleanliness, the disdainful indifference of the father, and the rudeness of the mother, will entirely destroy or will at least weaken the impressions that have been made. The very atmosphere in which he lives, the costumes he sees, the backwardness which surrounds him, the very aspect of objects, of the house, of the plough, the manner of reaping, the social relations, all will conspire to weaken the germ of better ideas which he receives at school. The indifference of the authorities, the want of encouragement, the indifference of the parents, will carry to the very school monotony and disenchantment.

But let us begin the work and follow its progress step by step. One hundred children are gathered under the direction of a schoolmaster. The simple fact of each one's leaving the narrow circle of the family and breaking from the influence of the ordinary routine of life, and of their reunion in groups under a recognized authority, implants in the mind the first ideas and consequent laws of association; it becomes necessary to obey, to act, not as hitherto in conformity to the inspiration of individual caprice, but in virtue of something like duty, according to a controlling method, under an authority like a government, for an end beyond the present time. Here you already have morality inculcated, rude nature subjected, a *mos moris*, a discipline of habit. There begins to be custom, a

daily habit of work, of directing action to an end. It is said of mathematics that they discipline the reason; the schools, simply for their requiring attendance at fixed hours and with a determined object, become a means of discipline to the passions in the germ and in their unfolding. The children can not shout here when they please, nor laugh, nor run, nor fight, nor eat. Such social life leaves its traces upon the mind and upon the future customs of him who is to be a man. The statistics of every country have proved this fact without its being recognized. To know how to read even badly, without having made use of reading as a means of instruction, has been found to be a preservative against crime, the number of crimes among this class of men being relatively less than among the mass, who are altogether destitute of the first rudiments of knowledge. What influence could this sterile beginning of instruction have on the morality of the individual? None! It is the *school*. Reading is usually only learned in school, and it is the school that brings the appetites under control, educates the mind, subordinates the passions, and domesticates the man. The school brings into contact men in the germ, and compels them to associate day after day without anger. The instinct of a boy leads him to seek a quarrel with another boy of his own age and strength whom he meets in the street; but the daily habit of seeing one hundred boys in the school under the same conditions, takes away this hostile feeling, and the quarrelsome spirit of the natural man, which at a later day would be translated into stabbing and homicide, is suffocated or softened at its source. On the other hand, the soul makes use of material organs for its functions, and is enabled by practice to strengthen and perfect itself. The weak yearling is converted into the strong and powerful ox by means of the exercise of its muscles. The memory, the judgment, and the power of perceiving analogies and contrasts, become refined and expand with the smallest exercise of the mind. Learning to read, solely as an exercise of the mental faculties, without its application to the ends of reading, causes a revolution in the mind of the child, improves him, expands him. Hundreds of men have begun a study and spontaneously abandoned it, and lost what they had learned; have gone through a course of studies and afterwards forgotten all or nearly all that they had read;—or have studied Latin alone, and that badly, (and for the purposes of life, for the acquirement of any other than professional knowledge, an acquaintance with Latin is like knowing the *Guichua* dialect for the purposes of commerce,) and nevertheless it is an established fact that these men who have abandoned study, these Latin students, have a clearer mind than those who have

studied nothing. Being once in a gathering of men who wished to learn to read, our attention was attracted by the appearance of a young man, wrapped up, as the others, in his *poncho*. "But you know how to read and write perfectly," I said to him. Had he answered me that he did not, I should have felt the unpleasant sensations which are experienced when we see opposite signs to those which are natural, as when a man laughs without moving the muscles of his face. He in fact knew how to read and write with a considerable degree of perfection. We afterwards saw two brothers, identical in features, tone of voice, height, and complexion. Feature by feature they were as identical as twins; but comparing the expression of their features, they were two distinct beings; the one appeared as if he might be the steward of the other's house. One had received a complete education by contact with high society, while the other had remained confined to the occupations of the country. The employment of the understanding transforms the features of the human face, lightens it up, and gives it dignity and grace even when in repose.

Should the school, therefore, produce no other results than to exercise at an early age the faculties of the mind, somewhat subordinating the passions, it would be the means of changing in a single generation the industrial capacity of the mass, as well as its morality and habits. It is proved beyond doubt that in workshops to know how to read is the cause of producing more and better work. It may be a matter of conjecture how this result is produced; but the manufacturer does not deceive himself; the women who do not know how to read earn, for instance, ten cents per day; those who know how to read, thirty; and she who has taught to read, forty—employed in the same kind of labor.

But the modern school, such as it may be in Chili, does not confine itself in its possible results to those mysterious and imperceptible first rudiments of civilization. Let us undertake this work with a feeling of the certainty of success, and with the means already tested, and the mighty effects will very soon be felt. We already have the teacher; bring him, then, the scholars. Reading is no longer a punishment for the child, nor a torment of years of apprenticeship. The Spanish, next to the Italian, is the most easily read on account of the simplicity of its orthography. The most severe logic governs its writing. It is written the same as it is pronounced; it is pronounced as it is written. The elementary book descends to the limited capacity of the child, to lead him by degrees and insensibly to the books of men. There is no struggling with routine; routine has given way before experience.

We want, however, the school-house, the spacious, commodious, and well-ventilated building. What structure is that to be seen yonder with white and raised front and elegant outline? It is the town school-house, under the roof of which the present generation has spent three or four years. When this generation shall have become full men and women, the *rancho* will have disappeared, one by one, and the cheerful fireside will shine instead. The most pleasant recollections of our infancy are associated with this pretty and spacious building, with the cheerful and comfortable fireplace. How can such associations be broken?

But where is the book that shall be used after the child has learned to read, the book to lead him through life? This book will not be long in coming. Agriculture needs books; the art of war needs books; cattle-raising requires books; the school requires books; and our religion needs books, that we may not depend on oral tradition alone for the preservation of our faith. Let us teach reading in all its branches and under all possible forms, to make it fruitful;—geography, arithmetic, linear drawing, for all are but reading, or a form of reading—and in this way we may change the whole face and future of our country, and substitute, instead of the Promancanian Spanish and Araucanian Indian, unfitted for progress, a people able to follow all modern industrial pursuits on its onward rapid march. The steamers, beating the waters of our rivers and coasts, are a foreign production; the stuffs in which we are clothed are no work of ours; the railroad, advancing to the very foot of our Cordilleras, is not the product of our brains. The auxiliary agencies adopted for the propagation of common schools are accusing our impotency and nothingness, because they are all foreign importations. These are but the simple overflowing of the overfull channels of other lands, that begins to invade slowly our own homes, our streets, and fields. Let us then teach reading, so that our people may read the wonders of the railroad, of the telegraph, and of those steamers that are proclaiming, like Nature itself, the glory of God. Like God's creation, those marvelous inventions of men go on proclaiming, throughout the world, the power and glory of those nations who have been elevated above the rest by mental culture, and by endowing their children with the means of enjoying the benefit of the accumulated knowledge and experience of mankind.

Such is the schoolmaster's work. An humble but lofty task—humble enough not to be forgotten by those who perform so beneficent ministryship. They are the unpretending instrument of wondrous transformations!

IV. DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

PREFACE.

THE first distinct suggestion of a SCHOOL having for one of its objects the special preparation of schoolmasters, which we have met in our researches into the educational history of the country, occurs in the Massachusetts Magazine for 1789—in which the writer (supposed to have been Elisha Ticknor) proposes "to abolish the system of Town Grammar Schools, and to establish a public Grammar School in each county of the State, in which should be taught English Grammar, Latin, Greek, rhetoric, geography, mathematics, &c., *in order to fit young gentlemen for college and school-keeping.* At the head of this county school I would place an able preceptor who should superintend the whole instruction of the youth committed to his care, and who, together with a board of overseers, should annually examine young gentlemen designed for schoolmasters in reading, writing, arithmetic, and English grammar, and if they are found qualified for the office of school-keeping, and able to teach these branches with ease and propriety, to recommend them for this purpose. No man ought to be suffered to superintend ever so small a school, except he has been first examined by a body of men of this character and authorized for this purpose."

The first School or Seminary established avowedly for the instruction of those who desired to become teachers, and organized and conducted in reference to this end, was in the town of Concord, Vermont. In that town, Rev. Samuel Read Hall, in March, 1823, opened a School or Seminary especially for this class of persons, prepared and read before them every year for seven years a course of Lectures on School Keeping, and another on School Government, and to illustrate how children should be governed and instructed, admitted into his Seminary a class of young pupils, who constituted a sort of Model School. A portion of the Lectures prepared for this Seminary were printed in 1829, and a few years later, an edition of over ten thousand copies were printed at the expense of James Wadsworth of Geneseo, and distributed to the several School-Districts of the State of New York under the sanction of the Legis-

lature, by the Superintendent of Common Schools. This pioneer of American Normal Schools,—this early and one of the earliest contributors to the Pedagogical Literature of the country, continued to labor in this special field until May, 1840—a teacher of teachers —first at Concord, Vt., from March, 1823, to July, 1830; at Andover, Mass., as Principal of the Teachers' Seminary from September, 1830, to June, 1835, and at Plymouth, N. H., from June, 1837, to May, 1840.*

The first formal effort to establish a Seminary for Teachers in Massachusetts was made by James G. Carter in Lancaster in 1827, to realize the plan of such an institution which he had presented in his "Essays on Popular Education," first published in the Boston Patriot in the winter of 1824–5, and afterwards issued in pamphlet form in 1826. The town of Lancaster appropriated a portion of land and the use of an academy building to aid him in carrying out the enterprise. His Memorial to the Legislature—asking "for a moderate amount of public patronage," for a seminary "for the particular instruction in the science of education or in the best means of developing the physical, moral, and intellectual powers of the young," "as no such seminary for this purpose had to his knowledge been established in this country"—was commended by the Governor in his Message, and favorably reported on by the "Select Committee on so much of the Governor's Message as related to a Seminary for the Instruction of School Teachers." But the movement was in advance of public opinion as represented in the Legislature. Mr. Carter, however, opened a school in 1827, and for several years prepared private pupils who became successful teachers in different parts of the country, while he himself by public lecture, and as a member of the Legislature, continued to advocate measures for the professional training of teachers, and the improvement of the system of public schools—and finally, in 1837, drafted the act creating the State Board of Education.*

The first Normal School, or Seminary for the Instruction and Training of Teachers, in Massachusetts, was established in Andover, by the Trustees of Phillips Academy, and was opened in Sept., 1830, under the Principalship of Rev. Samuel Read Hall—whose Lectures on School Keeping, and experience in his private seminary in Concord, Vermont, signalized him as almost the only man in the country whose studies and experience qualified him for this special work. The Seminary continued in successful operation until 1842.

* For Memoirs of Samuel Read Hall and James G. Carter, see Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, Vol. V.; and *American Educational Biography*, Vol. I.

OUTLINE

OF AN INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

BY JAMES G. CARTER.

THE following outline constitutes Essay VI. of Essays on Popular Education, published by Mr. Carter in the Boston Patriot, with the signature of Franklin, in the winter of 1824–25. The series was commenced on the 17th of December, 1824; and the essay containing the outline was published on the 10th and 15th of February, 1825.

It will do but little good for the Legislature of the State to make large appropriations directly for the support of schools, till a judicious expenditure of them can be insured. And in order to this, we must have skillful teachers at hand. It will do but little good to class the children till we have instructors properly prepared to take charge of the classes. It will do absolutely no good to constitute an independent tribunal to decide on the qualifications of teachers, while they have not had the opportunities necessary for coming up to the proper standard. And it will do no good to overlook and report upon their success, when we know beforehand that they have not the means of success. It would be beginning wrong, too, to build houses and to tell your young and inexperienced instructors to teach this or to teach that subject, however desirable a knowledge of such subjects might be, while it is obvious that they cannot know how, properly, to teach any subject. The *science of teaching*—for it must be made a science—is first, in the order of nature, to be inculcated. And it is to this point that the public attention must first be turned, to effect any essential improvement.

And here let me remark upon a distinction in the qualifications of teachers, which has never been practically made; though it seems astonishing that it has so long escaped notice. I allude to the distinction between the possession of knowledge, and the ability to communicate it to other minds. When we are looking for a teacher, we inquire how much he *knows*, not how much he can *communicate;* as if the latter qualification were of no consequence to us. Now it seems to me that parents and children, to say the least, are as much interested in the latter qualification of their instructor as in the former.

Though a teacher cannot communicate more knowledge than he possesses, yet he may possess much, and still be able to impart but little. And the knowledge of Sir Isaac Newton could be of but trifling use to a school, while it was locked up safely in the head of a country schoolmaster. So far as the object of a school or of instruction, therefore, is the acquisition of knowledge, novel as the opinion may seem, it does appear to me that both parents and pupils are even more interested in the part of their teacher's knowledge which they will be likely to get, than in the part which they certainly cannot get.

One great object in the education of teachers which it is so desirable on every account to attain, is to establish an intelligible language of communication between the instructor and his pupil, and enable the former to open his head and his heart, and infuse into the other some of the thoughts and feelings which lie hid there. *Instructors and pupils do not understand each other.* They do not speak the same language. They may use the same words; but this can hardly be called the same language, while they attach to them such very different meanings. We must either, by some magic or supernatural power, bring children at once to comprehend all our abstract and difficult terms, or our teachers must unlearn themselves, and come down to the comprehension of children. One of these alternatives is only difficult, while the other is impossible.

The direct, careful preparation of instructors for the profession of teaching, must surmount this difficulty; and I doubt if there be any other way in which

it can be surmounted. When instructors understand their profession, that is, in a word, when they understand the philosophy of the infant mind, what powers are earliest developed, and what studies are best adapted to their development, then it will be time to lay out and subdivide their work into an energetic system of public instruction. Till this step toward a reform, which is preliminary in its very nature, be taken, every other measure must be adopted in the dark; and, therefore, be liable to fail utterly of its intended result. Houses, and funds, and books are all, indeed, important; but they are only the means of enabling the minds of the teachers to act upon the minds of the pupils. And they must, inevitably, fail of their happiest effects, till the minds of the teachers have been prepared to act upon those of their pupils to the greatest advantage.

If, then, the first step toward a reform in our system of popular education be the scientific preparation of teachers for the free schools, our next inquiry becomes, How can we soonest and most perfectly achieve an object on every account so desirable? The ready and obvious answer is, establish an institution for the very purpose. To my mind, this seems to be the only measure which will insure to the public the attainment of the object. It will be called a new project. Be it so. The concession does not prove that the project is a bad one, or a visionary, or an impracticable one. Our ancestors ventured to do what the world had never done before, in so perfect a manner, when they established the free schools. Let us also do what they have never so well done yet, and establish an institution for the exclusive purpose of preparing instructors for them. This is only a second part, a development or consummation of the plan of our fathers. They foresaw the effect of universal intelligence upon national virtue and happiness; and they projected the means of securing to themselves and to us universal education. They wisely did a new thing under the sun. It has proved to be a good thing. We now enjoy the results of their labors, and we are sensible of the enjoyment. Their posterity have praised them, loudly praised them, for the wisdom of their efforts. Let us, then, with hints from them, project and accomplish another new thing, and confer as great a blessing on those who may come after us. Let us finish the work of our fathers, in regard to popular education, and give to it its full effect. Let us double, for we easily may, the happy influences of an institution which has already attracted so much notice from every part of our country, and drawn after it so many imitations, and send it, thus improved, down to posterity for their admiration.

If a seminary for the purpose of educating teachers scientifically be essential in order to give the greatest efficacy to our system of popular education, then, in the progress of the discussion, the three following questions arise in the order in which they are stated. By whom should the proposed institution be established? What would be its leading features? And what would be some of the peculiar advantages to the public which would result from it? To answer these several questions at length would require a book; while I have, at present, only leisure to prepare one or two newspaper essays. A few hints, therefore, upon the above three topics are all that I dare profess to give, and more than I fear I can give, either to my own satisfaction or that of those readers who may have become interested in the subject.

The institution, from its peculiar purpose, must necessarily be both literary and scientific in its character. And although, with its design constantly in view, we could not reasonably expect it to add, directly, much to the stock of what is now called literature, or to enlarge much the boundaries of what is now called science, yet, from the very nature of the subject to which it would be devoted, and upon which it would be employed, it must in its progress create a kind of literature of its own, and open a new science somewhat peculiar to itself—the science of the development of the infant mind, and the science of communicating knowledge from one mind to another while in a different stage of maturity. The tendency of the inquiries which must be carried on, and the discoveries which would be constantly made, in a seminary for this new purpose, would be to give efficacy to the pursuits of other literary and scientific institutions. Its influence, therefore, though indirect, would be not the less powerful upon the cause of literature and the sciences generally. These remarks may seem to anticipate another part of my subject; but they are introduced here to show that a seminary for the education of teachers would stand, at least, on as favorable a footing in

relation to the public, as other literary and scientific institutions. It seems now to be believed that the Legislature of the State are the rightful proprietors of all public institutions for the diffusion of knowledge. And if they are of any, they certainly ought to be of one for such a purpose. Because there are none in which the public would be more deeply interested. There are none which would tend so much to diffuse knowledge among the whole mass of the people. And this, as has been before remarked, is a solemn duty enjoined upon our government by the constitution under which they are organized, and from which they derive their authority. Besides, it is the first impulse of every government, operating as quickly and steadily as instinct, to provide for its own preservation. And it seems to be conceded on all hands, by the friends as well as the enemies of freedom, that a government like our own can only exist among a people generally enlightened; the only question as to the permanency of free institutions being, whether it be possible to make and to keep the whole population of a nation so well educated as the existence of such institutions supposes and requires.

Our government, therefore, are urged by every motive which the constitution can enjoin or self-preservation suggest, to see to it that knowledge is generally diffused among the people. Upon this subject of popular education, a *free* government must be *arbitrary;* for its existence depends upon it. The more ignorant and degraded people are, the less do they feel the want of instruction, and the less will they seek it. And these are the classes of a community which always increase the fastest up to the very point, where the means of subsistence fail. So that if any one class of men, however small, be suffered as a body to remain in ignorance, and to allow their families to grow up without instruction, they will increase in a greater ratio, compared with their numbers, than the more enlightened classes, till they have a preponderance of physical power. And when this preponderance becomes overwhelming, what hinders a revolution and an arbitrary government, by which the mind of a few can control the physical strength of the many!

If this reasoning be correct, a free government must look to it betimes, that popular ignorance does not gain upon them. If it do, there is a thistle in the vineyard of the republic, which will grow and spread itself in every direction, till it cannot be eradicated. The ignorant must be allured to learn by every motive which can be offered to them. And if they will not thus be allured, they must be taken by the strong arm of government and brought out, willing or unwilling, and made to learn, at least, enough to make them peaceable and good citizens. It would be well, indeed, if the possibility could be held out to all of successfully aspiring to responsible stations in society. A faint hope is better than despair. And though only one chance in a thousand be favorable, even that is worth something to stimulate the young to greater efforts, to become worthy of distinction. The few who, under all the disadvantages which adverse circumstances impose, can find their way by untired perseverance to places of trust and influence in the republic, serve to give identity of feeling, of purpose, and pursuit to the whole. They harmonize and bind together all those different and distant classes of the community, between which fretful jealousies naturally subsist.

These are hints, only, at an argument, perhaps unintelligible ones, to establish the principle, that free governments are the proprietors of all literary and scientific institutions, so far as they have the tendency to diffuse knowledge generally among the people. The free schools of Massachusetts, as the most efficient means of accomplishing that object, should therefore be the property and the peculiar care of government. An argument will, at once, be drawn from these principles why they should assume the direction of the schools, so far as to insure to the people over whom they are appointed to preside, competent teachers of them. And as this is the main purpose of the proposed institution, the reasoning seems to be conclusive why they should be its proprietor, or, at least, its patron and protector.

An institution for the education of teachers, as has been before intimated, would form a part, and a very important part, of the free-school system. It would be, moreover, precisely that portion of the system which should be under the direction of the State, whether the others are or not. Because we should

thus secure at once, a uniform, intelligent, and independent tribunal for decisions on the qualifications of teachers. Because we should thus relieve the clergy of an invidious task, and insure to the public competent teachers, if such could be found or prepared. An institution for this purpose would become, by its influence on society, and particularly on the young, an engine to sway the public sentiment, the public morals, and the public religion, more powerful than any other in the possession of government. It should, therefore, be responsible immediately to them. And they should carefully overlook it, and prevent its being perverted to other purposes, directly or indirectly, than those for which it is designed. It should be emphatically the State's institution. And its results would soon make it the State's favorite and pride, among other literary and scientific institutions. The Legislature of the State should, therefore, establish and build it up, without waiting for individuals, at great private sacrifices, to accomplish the work. Such would be the influence of an institution for the education of teachers; and such is the growing conviction of the strength of early associations and habits, that it cannot be long before the work will be begun in some form. If it be not undertaken by the public and for public purposes, it will be undertaken by individuals for private purposes.

The people of Massachusetts are able and willing, yea, more than willing, they are anxious to do something more for popular education, for the diffusion of knowledge generally. The only questions with them are how and where can means be applied to the purpose to the greatest advantage. It may safely be submitted, by the friends of the free schools, to a republican people and their republican government, which institutions on comparison most deserve the public bounty; those whose advantages can be enjoyed but by a few, or those which are open to the whole population; those which have for their main objects good that is remote, or those whose happy influences are felt at once, through the whole community. Which institutions deserve the first consideration, and the most anxious attention of a popular government, those which will place a few scholars and philologists upon a level with the Germans in a knowledge of Greek accents, or those which will put our whole people upon the level of enlightened men in their practical knowledge of common things? These objects may all be important to us. But the former will be provided for by individuals; the latter are the peculiar care of government.

The next question, mentioned above, as arising in the progress of this discussion, was, what would be the leading features of an institution for the education of teachers. If the institution were to be founded by the State, upon a large scale, the following parts would seem to be obviously essential. 1. An appropriate library, with a philosophical apparatus. 2. A principal and assistant professor in the different departments. 3. A school for children of different ages, embracing both those desiring a general education, and those designed particularly for teachers. 4. A Board of Commissioners, or an enlightened body of men representing the interests and the wishes of the public.

1. A library should of course be selected with particular reference to the objects of the institution. It would naturally and necessarily contain the approved authors on the science of education in its widest sense. It would embrace works of acknowledged merit in the various branches of literature and science intimately connected with education; such as anatomy and physiology, the philosophy of the human mind and heart, and the philosophy of language.

Physical education forms a very essential part of the subject, and should be thoroughly understood. This branch includes the development of all the organs of the body. And works upon the physiology of children should be added to the library. Books on gymnastics, containing directions for particular exercises adapted to the development of the several organs, belong to the library of the accomplished instructor, as well as to that of the surgeon. Indeed, if the former properly use them, they will enable him to give a firmness to the parts of the body which may, perhaps, supersede the necessity of the interference of the latter to set them right in manhood.

The philosophy of the infant mind must be understood by the instructor before much progress can be made in the science of education; for a principal branch of the science consists in forming the mind. And the skill of the teacher in this department is chiefly to be seen in his judicious adaptation of means to the de-

velopment of the intellectual faculties. Every book, therefore, which would aid in an analysis of the youthful mind, should be placed in the library of the proposed institution.

The human heart, the philosophy of its passions and its affections, must be studied by those who expect to influence those passions, and form those affections. This branch of the subject includes the government of children, especially in the earliest stages of their discipline. The success of the teacher here depends upon the good judgment with which he arranges and presents to his pupils the motives that will soonest move them, and most permanently influence their actions. The mistaken or wicked principles of parents and instructors, in this department of education, have, no doubt, perverted the dispositions of many hopeful children. If successful experience has been recorded, it should be brought to the assistance of those who must otherwise act without experience.

Lastly, the study of the philosophy of language would be essential to the scientific teacher. The term language is not here understood to mean a class of words called Greek, or another class of words called Latin, or even that class of words which we call English. It means something more general, and something which can hardly be defined. It embraces all the means we use to excite in the minds of others the ideas which we have already in our own minds. These, whatever they are, are included in the general definition of language. This is a great desideratum in our systems of education. We do not possess a language by which we can produce *precisely* the idea in a pupil which we have in our own mind, and which we wish to excite in his. And impatient and precipitate teachers quite often quarrel with their pupils, because they do not arrive at the same conclusions with themselves, when, if they could but look into their minds, they would find that the ideas with which they begin to reason, or which enter into their processes of reasoning, are altogether different. Every book or fact, therefore, which would do any thing to supply this desideratum, or enable the teacher better to understand precisely the idea which he excites in the mind of his pupils, should be collected in the instructor's library.

2. The institution should have its principal and its assistant professors. The government and instruction of a seminary for the education of teachers would be among the most responsible situations which could be assigned to men in literary or scientific pursuits. As many of the objects of the institution would be new, so the duties of its instructors would also be new. No commanding minds have gone before precisely in the proposed course, and struck out a path which others may easily follow. There are no *rules* laid down for the direction of those who will not think upon, or who cannot understand the subject. Men must, therefore, be brought to the task who have the ability to observe accurately and to discriminate nicely. They must also collect the results of what experience they can from books and from others, in order to enable themselves to form some general principles for the direction of their pupils, who will go abroad to carry their improvements to others. It is not supposed for a moment that all who may receive instruction at the proposed institution with the intention of becoming teachers, will necessarily be made thereby adepts in the science, any more than it is believed that all who happen to reside four years within the walls of a college are necessarily made expert in the mysteries of syllogisms and the calculus. But having seen correct general principles of education successfully reduced to practice, they may, at least, become *artists* in the profession, and be able to teach pretty well upon a system, the philosophy of which they cannot thoroughly comprehend.

3. A school of children and youth of different ages and pursuing different branches of study would form an essential part of the institution. In the early stages of the education of children, the discipline should consist almost wholly of such exercises as serve to develop the different faculties and strengthen all the powers of the mind. And in the subsequent education of youth, when the discipline comes to consist partly in the development of the mind, and partly in the communication of knowledge, the course of instruction would be the same, whether the pupil were destined to be a teacher or not. The objects of the institution do not, therefore, become peculiar till after the pupil has acquired a certain degree of freedom and strength of mind; nor till after he has made the acquisition of the requisite amount of knowledge for the profession of teacher.

Though a pupil would necessarily imbibe a good deal of clearness and method in his intellectual exercises by submitting the direction of them to a skillful instructor, the study of the science of teaching cannot properly begin till he changes relations with those about him; and, instead of following a course prescribed by another, and exhibiting the powers of his own mind without an effort to take cognizance of them, he assumes to look down upon humbler minds, to direct their movements, and to detect and classify the phenomena of their subtle workings.

After the young candidate for an instructor, therefore, has acquired sufficient knowledge for directing those exercises and teaching those branches which he wishes to profess, he must then begin his labors under the scrutinizing eyes of one who will note his mistakes of government and faults of instruction, and correct them. The experienced and skillful professor of the science will observe how the mind of the young teacher acts upon that of the learner. He will see how far and how perfectly they understand each other, and which is at fault if they do not understand each other at all. If the more inexperienced teacher should attempt to force upon the mind of a child an idea or a process of reasoning for which it was not in a proper state, he would be checked at once, and told of his fault; and thus, perhaps, the pupil would be spared a disgust for a particular study, or an aversion to all study. As our earliest experience would in this manner be under the direction of those wiser than ourselves, it would the more easily be classed under general principles for our direction afterward. This part of the necessary course in an institution for the education of teachers might be much aided by lectures. Children exhibit such and such intellectual phenomena; the scientific professor of education can explain those phenomena, and tell from what they arise. If they are favorable, he can direct how they are to be encouraged and turned to account in the development and formation of the mind. If they are unfavorable, he can explain by what means they are to be overcome or corrected. Seeing intellectual results, he can trace them, even through complicated circumstances, to their causes: or, knowing the causes and circumstances, he can predict the result that will follow them. Thus every day's experience would be carefully examined, and made to limit or extend the comprehension of the general principles of the science. Is there any other process or method than this to arrive at a philosophical system of education? If any occurs to other minds, it is to be hoped that the public may soon have the benefit of it.

4. The fourth branch, which I mentioned above as constituting an important part of an institution for the education of teachers, was a Board of Commissioners. Although they would, probably, have but little to do with the immediate government and instruction of the institution, they would be valuable to it by representing the wishes of the community, and by bringing it more perfectly in contact with the public interests. Besides, it must occur to every one, that in the general management of such an establishment, many of the transactions would require characters and talents very different from those that would, generally, be found in the principal or professors. Men might easily be found who would lecture to admiration, and yet be wholly incompetent to assume the general direction of the establishment. The professors, too, would always want assistance and authority in determining what acquisitions should be required for admission into the institution, and what proficiency should be deemed essential in the candidates before leaving it to assume the business of teaching. Upon what principles shall the school be collected? How shall the privilege of attending as new learners in the science of education be settled upon applications from different parts of the State or country? These and many similar questions would render a body of men, distinct from the professors, important to the institution. Many decisions, too, must necessarily be made, affecting individual and private interests. This would be an invidious duty, and the instructors should be relieved from it as far as possible. It is confidently believed that the peculiar advantages to be enjoyed at such an institution by children and youth generally, as well as by those designed for teachers, would command a price sufficient to defray nearly the whole expenses of the establishment. If not so, then might not each town send one or more young men to the institution to be properly educated for instructors, and require them in return to teach their public schools to liquidate the expense? All these means, however, are subjects for future consider-

ation, and are to be devised after the utility of the institution has been demonstrated.

The peculiar advantages of an institution for the education of teachers would be far too numerous and too important to be either embraced or enforced in the space which remains for this topic. A few, therefore, of the most obvious ones are all that can here be alluded to. One advantage, and a very certain one, would be to raise the character of teachers generally; and consequently, in the same degree, the character of the schools which they teach. Let us pause, for a moment, to consider to what an extent we are interested in every thing which affects our system of public instruction; and hence derive a motive, before we pass on, to enforce attention to every suggestion for improvement in it.

There were in the district of Massachusetts, according to the census of 1820, five hundred and twenty-three thousand one hundred and fifty-nine souls. Of this number, two hundred and forty-one thousand seven hundred and eleven were under the age of eighteen years. The numbers have since been much augmented. If the population has increased only as fast since the last census as it did between the census of 1810 and that of 1820, there are now, in round numbers, about two hundred and fifty thousand children and youth in Massachusetts under the age of eighteen years. This, it will be perceived, amounts to almost one-half of the whole number of souls. If we take from the older those between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one, and add them to the younger part of the population, we shall find at least half, and probably more than half of the whole, under twenty-one years.

These are all flexible subjects of education, in its most comprehensive sense; though they are not all within the influence of that part of it which can be easily controlled by legislation, or indeed by any means except by an enlightened public opinion. A few of this great number have left the schools and all direct means of education, and entered upon the active business of life. And a portion of the younger part of them are yet subjects only for domestic education. But after these deductions from the two extremes, it will not be extravagant to state, that one-third of the whole population are of a suitable age, have opportunity, and do actually attend school some portion of the year. In Massachusetts we have not the means of knowing accurately the numbers of children and youth who attend our schools; because we have no system of returns to any public authority, by which such facts can be ascertained. But I am confirmed in the belief that the above is not an extravagant estimate, by two circumstances. One of them is, several towns have been carefully examined, and this is about the proportion of the population found in their schools. And the other is, official documents and acknowledged authorities from the neighboring State of Connecticut informs us that one-third of the population attend their free schools a part of the year. And probably the same would be found to be true of New York, as well as of the remainder of the New England States.

These are statistical facts. Others may reason upon them and draw what conclusions they can, about immigration, the future prospects of New England, her comparative influence in the Union, and the facilities she affords for a *manufacturing district*. They have been introduced here because they suggest motives stronger than any others, to enforce attention to our means of popular education. One-third of our whole population are now at that period of life when their principles and characters are rapidly forming. Habits, both moral and intellectual, are taking their direction, and acquiring the strength of age. In all this, the schools must have a deep influence. Both the degree and the kind of influence are, to a certain extent, within our control, and consequently depend upon our efforts. In twenty years, and surely twenty years are not beyond the ken of a tolerably clear-sighted politician, this part of our population will succeed to most of the responsible places and relations of their fathers. They must receive all that we have to leave for them. They must take our names, and attach to them honor or infamy. They must possess our fortunes, to preserve or disperse them. And they must inherit our free institutions, to improve, pervert, or destroy them. Here, then, are the strongest political motives, as well as paternal affection, urging upon us attention to all the means of forming correctly the characters of those who are to receive from us our choicest blessings. And what means within our control can be devised more efficient for this purpose, than

those primary seminaries for instruction, where the mass of the people must receive several years of their education? Find, if they are to be found, or create, if they are not now to be found, a class of teachers *well skilled* in their profession, and put them into all our free schools. What an effect would soon be produced in their condition! And what a renovating influence these same schools would soon have upon the character of the whole people who have access to them!

But these are general advantages of a good class of teachers. I promised to speak of the peculiar advantages of the proposed institution to produce them. The library, collected with particular reference to the objects of the institution, would contain the *facts* of the science of education scattered along in the history of the world. Facts are the materials of philosophy. And we cannot philosophize, safely, till we have an extensive stock before us. The library would naturally collect, not only those phenomena relating to the subject which have already been observed, but also the records of those which must be daily passing before our eyes. Books connected with and collateral to the science will be as important to the purposes of the institution as those professedly written upon the subject. And frequently they will be found to be much more so. Because the former contain the facts and the phenomena, while the latter have only an author's reasoning and conclusions upon them. And the authors who have written upon education, with very few exceptions, have reasoned speciously, but from very limited and imperfect inductions. So that their conclusions, though they may be correct, as far as they had the necessary means of making them so, are liable to fail, totally, when reduced to practice under circumstances a little different from those from which the principles have been formed. We want more experience before we begin to reason at large and to draw sweeping conclusions on the subject. And our library would be chiefly valuable as containing that experience, or the results of it, accurately and authentically recorded.

But the conclusions of writers on the subject, though received and repeated by every body, are not binding and beyond question, till we know that the facts from which they reasoned are *all* which can affect the principles that they deduce from them. And to believe that the experience of two thousand years, embracing the present age, which is so full of phenomena of all kinds, has not added something to our means of a copious and safe induction to principles of education, requires a stretch of credulity with which my mind is not gifted. It will be safer, as a general rule, to assume that they teach us what to avoid, rather than what to imitate.

When we have collected the means of reasoning correctly, which books can afford, and added to them the living materials of philosophy, which will be constantly exhibited in the school which is to form a part of the institution, we are to place all these before instructors of discriminating minds, who are able and willing to *observe* as well as to reason. We are, then, to turn the public attention toward them in good earnest, and let them see that something is expected from them. There is a moral certainty, under such circumstances, that the expectation will be gratified. When the public attention is turned toward any subject, all the ardent and discriminating minds act in concert. And like the rays of the sun converged to a point by a lens, they act with an intensity which must produce an effect.

It would be a natural result of the proposed institution to organize the teachers into a more distinct profession, and to raise the general standard of their intellectual attainments. It would therefore concentrate and give energy and direction to exertions and inquiries, which are now comparatively wasted for want of such direction. No one, indeed, can now foresee, precisely, what effect would be produced upon our systems of education and principles of instruction by subjecting them to such an ordeal. To foretell the improvements that would be made, would be to make them, and supersede the necessity of an institution for the purpose. Though the necessity would still remain for some similar means to propagate them among the people. But if our principles of education, and particularly our principles of government and instruction, are not already perfect, we may confidently expect improvements, though we may not know, precisely, in what they will consist.

Many persons knew twenty years ago that steam was expansive. But who

foresaw the degree to which its expansion could be raised, or the purposes to which it could be applied? Public attention was turned to the subject in earnest, and we now see vessels moving in every direction by its power. It was known long since that light wood would float, and water run down hill. But who foresaw, twenty years ago, the present state of our internal improvement by means of canals? Public attention and powerful minds were directed to the subject, and we now see boats ascending and descending our mountains, and traversing our continent in every direction. Those who were before almost our antipodes, have now, by the facilities of communication, become our neighbors. The most intrepid prophet would hardly have dared, even ten years ago, to predict the present state of our manufactories. This has all been done, because it could be done, and many minds were turned to the subject, and resolved that it should be done. All these are in many respects analogous cases, and go to show that we do not always know how near to us important improvements are; and that it is only necessary to direct the public attention to a subject in order to insure some inventions in it.

A great variety of other peculiar advantages to the public, it occurs to me, must arise from an institution for the education of teachers. But I have confined myself to those only which seemed to be the most striking and important. All others will be found to be involved, in a great degree, or wholly, in those which I have stated. And although to enumerate them might add some new motives for attention to the subject, they could not strengthen much the argument in favor of an institution somewhat like that which has been above described. I must now take my leave of the subject for the present; my only regrets being that I have not had ability to do more justice to the several topics which I have discussed, nor time to do more justice to my own views of them.

To James G. Carter belongs the credit of having first arrested the attention of the leading minds of Massachusetts to the necessity of immediate and thorough improvement in the system of free or public schools, and especially by the training of competent teachers for these schools, by his "*Letters to the Hon. William Prescott, LL. D., on the Free Schools of New England*," in 1824, and his "*Essays on Popular Education, on Education as a Science, and an Institution for the Instruction of Teachers*," in 1824–5. These publications were noticed in the leading newspapers in all parts of the country, and were reviewed with extracts and discussions in the American Journal of Education, the United States Gazette, and North American Review. The subjects were taken up by Governors in their Messages, and discussed in the Legislatures of several States, and recognized in the Prospectuses of many Institutions.

In 1827 Mr. Carter opened an Institution, with special reference to the education of teachers on the plan set forth by him, and memorialized the Legislature for aid. The recommendations of the Committee were lost by a single vote.

In 1830 he assisted in the establishment of the American Institute of Instruction, of which he was Councilor and President, and, from his position as member of the Legislature and Chairman of the Committee on Education, was mainly instrumental in obtaining for its operations an annual grant of $300, by which its perpetuity was secured. From the same position he rendered other signal services to the cause, advocating every measure of school improvement, the compulsory education of factory children, the appropriation of the United States Revenue to a Teachers' Seminary, the appointment of a State Superintendent of Schools, and the establishment of the Board of Education, for which he drew the Act, and was nominated the first member.

MEMORIAL OF JAMES G. CARTER

TO THE

LEGISLATURE OF MASSACHUSETTS, AND THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES ON A SEMINARY FOR TEACHERS, IN 1827.

To the Hon. Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, in General Court assembled, the undersigned begs leave most respectfully to represent :—

That he is about to open a seminary in a central part of the state, for the general instruction of children and youth of both sexes, and also for the particular instruction of those who may resort to him for that purpose, in the *science of education;* or in the best means of developing the physical, moral, and intellectual powers of the young by judicious and wholesome exercise of those powers, and, at a subsequent period, of conveying to their minds the greatest amount of useful knowledge.

In regard to the department for general purposes, first above named, your memorialist believes that the public demand for a more practical education than is commonly afforded by our schools and colleges in their present state has become so strong and decided as to render it safe for individual enterprise to attempt to answer that demand. And he would not now ask the attention of your honorable body to that part of his plan further than to observe that, in his view, it may, without prejudice to itself, be made greatly subservient to the department for the education of teachers.

The necessity of some systematic preparation of instructors of youth, before they enter upon their duties, is so obvious, upon the slightest consideration; and the want of teachers, better qualified to govern and instruct our common schools than our present means are adequate to supply, has been so severely felt in every part of the state; that your memorialist believes it would even be safe for individual enterprise to enter upon that department, to a limited extent. But, as no seminary for this purpose has, to his knowledge, been established in this country; and as the establishment of one would necessarily require the investment of a considerable capital, as well as the expense of much valuable time, in order to conduct it so as to produce the best results; its advantages, even upon the most economical arrangement that can be made, must be put at a price above the ability of large and important classes of the community to pay. In this view of the subject, it has occurred to your memorialist, that if your honorable body—the chosen guardians of those schools which contain, at this and every moment, one-third of the whole population of the state—would extend to private enterprise a moderate amount of public patronage, it would so far diminish the necessary expenses of the institution to individuals, as to open its doors to all who would aspire to the responsible employment of teachers of youth.

By this union of private and public means—by private enterprise controlled by public wisdom—your memorialist believes that a seminary for the education of teachers might be at once commenced upon a scale more commensurate with its importance to the community, more adequate to the public demands for better instruction, more in keeping with the fundamental principle of the free schools, and more consonant with the whole spirit of our free institutions.

JAMES G. CARTER.

The Committee, of which Hon. William B. Calhoun, of Springfield, was chairman, submitted the following

REPORT.

The Select Committee, to whom was referred "so much of His Excellency the Governor's Message as relates to the subject of a Seminary for the Instruction of School Teachers," and to whom was also referred the memorial of James G. Carter, upon the same subject, respectfully report the accompanying bill.

They also ask leave to report further, that although legislative enactment upon the subject submitted to their consideration be entirely new, yet the attention of the community has been so repeatedly called to it, that public opinion concerning it may with safety be said already to have become unquestionably settled. Discussions in regard to it have been carried on for a considerable period past in this and the neighboring states.

At first, the views taken of it were necessarily indefinite; and, although the sentiment has become general that an institution for the instruction of school-teachers would be of incalculable benefit, yet, as no one had developed a plan, by which the object could be accomplished, the whole subject seemed to be impressed with a visionary and impracticable character. Recently, however, attempts have been made, and, as your committee believe, with great success, to reduce these general views to a standard of practical utility. Men have been induced to bestow their thoughts upon the subject, who—from their situation in the community—from their acquaintance with the science and practice of education—from their deep sense of the wants of the public, made apparent more particularly by the failure of many successive attempts to improve the character and elevate the standard of the free schools—and from the loud complaints which have been uttered on all sides, of the deficiency of good schoolmasters—might very naturally have been selected as specially fitted to examine and investigate the subject, and to apply the proper remedies. The consequence has been, that several plans of a school of instruction, for the purposes contemplated, have already been presented to the public; and your committee have very fortunately been able to avail themselves of the fruits of extensive researches in the premises.

The committee have had their attention called more particularly to the statements and explanations of the memorialist, whose petition has been before them. From a mature consideration of his plan of instruction, they are unanimously of opinion, that it is entirely practical in its character, simple in its details, and peculiarly calculated to develop the powers of the mind, and that the studies it requires are brought wholly and appropriately within the pale of downright utility. It is unnecessary here to go beyond a mere outline.

The attention of the student is to be called primarily to a course of reading upon the subject of education: he is to be instructed thoroughly in all the branches pertaining to his profession, particularly in all that portion of solid learning calculated to fit him to communicate the knowledge required in the common free schools in the country. A peculiar character of usefulness will be stamped upon the institution proposed, by connecting with it an experimental school, consisting entirely of young children, pursuing the ordinary routine of instruction. Here the student will see the whole course of management and discipline requisite in a school, placed obviously and palpably before him. Theory and practice will thus be intimately blended, and the student be led gradually into a knowledge of his appropriate duties, in precisely the same manner in which tact and capacity are acquired in all the other pursuits of life. Indeed, the institution contemplated amounts simply to an attempt to bring the business of school-teaching into a system, from which it has heretofore alone and most unaccountably been excluded.

Whilst the committee incline to the opinion, that this institution should be detached entirely from all other pursuits, and be devoted wholly and distinctly to the simple object in view, they would not be considered as deciding definitely that it could not be safely connected with some of the literary establishments of the state. Some undoubted advantages, particularly those of concentrated effort and action, will, in the opinion of the committee, give an institution of the former character a decided superiority over one of the latter description. In all probability, the wants of the public will require both to be resorted to.

In regard to details generally on the subject, the committee believe they may with great propriety be left to the discretion and judgment of the Board of Commissioners, whose appointment is provided for in the accompanying bill. A sufficient object will now be gained, if the legislature can be satisfied that the plan, in its character and principles, is feasible and practicable. Its simplicity can not but be seen to be particularly distinguishing.

It needs at this time neither argument nor an exhibition of facts, to demonstrate to the legislature, that the free schools of the commonwealth are not such as they ought to be—that they fail, most essentially, of accomplishing the high objects for

which they were established, and toward the support of which so large an amount of money is annually raised amongst the people. Upon this subject public opinion is fully settled.

Nor is there any difficulty in arriving at the true cause. Can it, in the large majority of cases, be traced to any other than the incompetency of teachers? And in this fact there is nothing mysterious. Can the teachers be otherwise than incompetent, when no pains are taken to instruct them in the business of their profession—when, in one word, they are not reputed or constituted a profession?

The great and leading object of school-teachers should be, to learn how to communicate knowledge; yet, although the statutes of the state require them to be thoroughly examined as to their qualifications, it is hardly necessary to remark, that their capabilities in reference to the important object alluded to are, and must be, from the very nature of the thing, kept entirely out of sight. And this state of things must, in the opinion of the committee, continue, and indeed grow worse and worse, until some provision is made for bringing about an end of so much consequence.

The several towns in the commonwealth are obliged by law to raise money for the support of schools: the sums contributed by the people for this purpose are of immense amount. Is it not, beyond question, the sacred duty of the legislature to see to it, that these contributions are made, in the highest possible degree, serviceable? Ought it not, as a matter of course, to be expected that the people will complain, if the government are inactive and indifferent, where such is the stake? In what more suitable and rational way can the government interpose, than in providing the means for furnishing the schools with competent instructors—and in encouraging the establishment of seminaries, whose object shall be to teach the art of communicating knowledge?

Your committee ask the attention of the legislature to the ready patronage, which, in past time, has been extended to the interests of learning in the higher institutions. They dwell, and the legislature and the people whom they represent can not but dwell, with proud satisfaction, upon the cheering recollections which the bare allusion can not fail to bring up. In time gone by, the fathers of the commonwealth have not been unmindful of the claims which the interests of literature have presented. These claims have not been disallowed.

But it is obvious to remark, that the patronage of the state has heretofore uniformly been extended to the higher institutions alone. No hearty interest has ever been manifested, at least in the form now contemplated, in the success and improvement of the free schools of the land. Your committee ask, and ask with great confidence, whether the time has not arrived, when an efficient and fostering hand should be held forth by the legislature to these important institutions? The object in view, it will not be deemed invidious to remark, is not for the benefit of the few, but of the many, of the whole. We call then the attention of the legislature to this pervading interest—the interest of the mass of the people; we ask them to cherish, encourage, and promote it; we ask them to let this community see that they are themselves in earnest in their endeavors to advance their true welfare.

Nor can the influence of education in the maintenance of our republican institutions here be overlooked. It is upon the diffusion of sound learning that we must mainly depend, if we mean to preserve these institutions healthful and enduring. These interests are intimately and deeply connected. But, for the great purposes in view, the learning to be diffused must be that which can be brought home to the business and bosom of every individual in the land. It is the everyday, the common-sense instruction, which we must scatter abroad. All must be thoroughly educated, in order that all may be truly freemen.

No words, in the opinion of your committee, can sufficiently express the magnitude and importance of this subject. It is one, upon which the attention of the legislature of Massachusetts should be particularly fastened. To Massachusetts it eminently pertains to take the lead in the project, which can not fail to accomplish so much in advancing the character, and securing the prosperity of the free schools. Here the system was first adopted. The pilgrims, from whom we derive honorable descent, placed the first hand upon the work. It belongs to the descendants of those pilgrims, and upon the ground where they trod, to finish and sustain it. For the Committee, W. B. CALHOUN.

THE PRUSSIAN SYSTEM OF TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

BY DR. JULIUS, OF HAMBURG.

THE Committee on Education, (of which Alexander H. Everett was chairman,) of the House of Representatives, Mass., in a Report on the distribution of the income of the School Fund, in March, 1835, recommended that a portion of the same should be applied "to the education of teachers," for the reason, that "it would do more for the cause of public instruction in this Commonwealth, than almost any innovation on the existing institutions that could well be imagined;" and cites the example of the Prussian system, the superiority of which is attributed to its care of this department. The following account of this feature of the Prussian system by Dr. Julius, then in this country as Commissioner of the King of Prussia to collect information on the subject of our prisons, &c., in the form of answers to certain queries, is appended to this Report:—

OUTLINE OF THE PRUSSIAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATING TEACHERS.

1. *How are the Seminaries, for the Education of Teachers, supported in Prussia—at the expense of the Government, or the Department?*

The seminaries for the teachers of primary schools are entirely supported by government from the general school fund, which has two separate divisions, the Catholic school fund, and the Protestant school fund.

The expense of these seminaries belongs to the ordinary annual budget of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which is only subjected to a common *visa*, but not to an extraordinary scrutinizing revision, if it does not contain new items which were not before introduced into it.

Some of the seminaries have ancient endowments, in landed property, which contribute to diminish the expense of the Royal Treasury, but the departments have nothing to spend for *this* part of popular education. In the year 1831, the annual expense for thirty-three seminaries amounted to nearly $80,000, whereof the Treasury had only to pay about $60,000.

At the beginning of 1833, there were forty-two seminaries in the kingdom, with a population of thirteen millions of inhabitants. To each of these seminaries a small elementary school for children of the city is attached, but merely as a means to develop the practical skill of the future teachers. The expense of the seminaries makes nearly the fifteenth part of the entire expense of the primary schools. The expense of the primary schools is borne nearly in such proportions by the State, and by the parishes, or rather "Communes," consisting of a village or of a city, that the last contribute nineteen-twentieths of the expenditure, and the State only one-twentieth part.

2. *Do the pupils, who are trained to the business of teaching, pay, while at the Seminaries, the expense of their board and tuition, or are they supported in whole or in part by the State?*

The whole expense of the erection of seminaries and of providing them with suitable buildings wherein the professors and the pupils live, as well as with a library, apparatus for instruction and musical instruments for the exercise of the

pupils, is borne by the State. As to the board of the pupils, it is paid for by far the greatest proportion of them, and provided for all by the State. There is only a small part of the pupils for whom the magistrates of the places of their nativity and residence, or their relatives, make a small annual payment to the treasurer of the seminary.

Those pupils which receive their education and support wholly from the State are legally bound to fill, during a certain number of years, the situations of schoolmasters to which they are elected, receiving always the annual salary attached to each of these situations. The length of time during which they have to fill, in this way, some place of schoolmaster offered to them, is three years. Should they not choose to accept such an appointment when offered to them, they have to pay to the treasurer of the seminary where they were educated, for each year of instruction, $14 and the whole amount of their board.

Of the forty-two seminaries existing first of January, 1833, twenty-eight were large, with 25 to 100 pupils. The law, which from unavoidable circumstances, has not always been observed, prescribed never to have more than sixty or seventy pupils in a seminary. These seminaries were entirely supported by the State or from their own funds. The remaining fourteen seminaries, which may be called branch seminaries, count each of them six to eighteen pupils, sometimes under the superintendence of an experienced clergyman or rector, and in these the State contributes only a part of their income.

In some of the larger seminaries the State gives, besides board, a small gratuity to some of the best and most informed pupils, who act as assistant teachers of their younger fellow students.

The number of pupils in these forty-two institutions amounted, at the above-mentioned period, to more than two thousand, the number of situations for schoolmasters to about twenty-two thousand, and the number of pupils formed for these situations, annually leaving the seminaries, to about eight or nine hundred. The annual vacancies in the situations of schoolmasters amount to about three or four per cent., so that, with due allowance for pupils selecting other situations, or retained by bodily infirmities there, there still remains a sufficient number of candidates for such appointments, and the possibility of making their examinations as rigorous as they ought to be.

The expenditure of the State for the seminaries amounts annually to a little more than $80,000.

3. *What is the term or duration of the course in the Seminaries?*

The usual length of the course of education in the seminaries is *three* years, each year having two terms. In the smaller or branch seminaries forming schoolmasters for the poorest and most thinly inhabited villages, the course is limited to two years.

The schoolmasters which have an appointment are sometimes (perhaps every year) assembled at the nearest seminary for the purpose of receiving there, during three or four weeks, a term of instruction on methods newly invented in the progress of the art of teaching.

Besides this, the most distinguished or most active schoolmasters receive from the consistory of the province small premiums in money, or books. The schoolmasters of the circles (nearly equal to one or two townships) have, under the protection of the government, weekly conferences, where they discuss the different methods of instruction, comment on new works on education, keep exact minutes of these transactions, and read their own observations or papers on these subjects.

4. *What are the subjects of study in the Seminaries?*

The age of entering into the seminaries is between sixteen or eighteen years, and the pupils are free from any service in the army or in the militia during times of peace.

The seminaries wherein no pupil can be received who has not gone through the elementary instruction, or whose morality is subjected to the least doubt, are destined to form teachers for the elementary or primary schools as well as for the middle or citizens' schools, where no instruction in the classical languages is given.

The parts which constitute the course of instruction for such teachers are—

1. Religion. Biblical history, introductory and commentatory lessons on the Bible, systematical instruction on the religious and moral duties of man.

2. The German language in an etymological and grammatical point of view. Exercises in expressing thoughts and reasoning orally and by writing.

3. Mathematics. Arithmetic as well from memory or intellectual as by putting down the numbers, geometry, stereometry, and trigonometry.

4. A knowledge of the world, consisting in an acquaintance with the most important events or objects in history, natural history, natural philosophy, geography and cosmology or physical geography.

5. Musical instruction, consisting in the theory and practice of singing, theory of music, instruction in playing on the violin and the organ.

6. Drawing according to the system of *Peter Schmid*, and penmanship.

7. The theory of education, the theory and practice of teaching and their connection with religious service, the liturgy.

8. Gymnastic exercises of all kinds.

9. Where it is practicable, theoretical and practical instruction in horticulture, in the cultivation of fruit-trees and in husbandry. In the country the dwelling-house of the schoolmaster has a garden, serving as a nursery and an orchard, for the benefit of the schoolmaster who lives there, without paying any rent or local taxes, and for the instruction of the village. In latter years the rearing of silk-worms and the production of silk has been frequently tried by the schoolmasters in the country, the government furnishing mulberry-trees, and other materials.

What is still more important than this complete course of instruction is the spirit of religious and moral industry and self-denial which pervades the seminaries, continually supported and inculcated by the directors, all highly distinguished men of piety and learning, and by the strict discipline under which the pupils live, without feeling themselves fettered by it.

5. *How far is instruction in each subject of study carried? For instance, where does the course of Mathematics terminate, and to what extent is Geography taught?*

The answer to this question may be found already in the preceding one.

On the whole the schoolmaster is so trained, that he may form, in connection with the rector, even of the remotest village, where the last-mentioned is always president *ex-officio* of the school committee elected by the inhabitants, a central point of religious, moral and intellectual information, sending its beneficent and cheerful beams through the whole extent of the little community.

This whole system of instruction tends to a religious and moral end, and rests on the sacred basis of Christian love. As the most affecting and indeed sublime example of this spirit, I mention the little, or branch seminaries for training poor schoolmasters in such habits and with such feelings as shall fit them to be useful and contented teachers of the poorest villages. Here is poverty, to which that of the poorest laborers in this country is affluence; and it is *hopeless*, for to this class of schoolmasters no idea is held out of advancement or change. Yet if ever poverty on earth appeared serene, contented, lofty, beneficent, it is here. "Here we see," as the well-informed English translator of Cousin's Report on the state of public instruction in Prussia says, "Here we see men in the very spring-time of life, so far from being made, as we are told men must be made, restless and envious and discontented by instruction, taking indigence and obscurity to their hearts for life; raised above their poor neighbors in education, only that they may become the servants of all, and may train the lowliest children in a sense of the dignity of man, and the beauty of creation, in the love of God and virtue."

6. *What apparatus is required in the Seminaries? For instance, what in Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, and other branches?*

The first thing requisite for the larger seminaries is a house, with ground for gymnastic exercises, for horticulture, and an orchard with fruit-trees, to teach pomology, &c., attached to it.

Besides this, a library composed principally of works on theology, moral philosophy, the art of teaching and systems of education, historical and geographical compendiums, books on natural history, natural philosophy, husbandry, cultivation of fruits and vegetables, rearing of bees and silk-worms, the German

classics, and musical works and compositions. Farther, a number of musical instruments, violins, flutes, pianos, and a large organ.

The apparatus for chemistry and natural philosophy comprises only those instruments which are requisite for those primary branches of both sciences that may be of use to the future schoolmaster, and also a small cabinet of natural history, consisting of minerals, plants and animals.

NOTE.

The foregoing account of the Teachers' Seminaries of Prussia, by Dr. Julius, is republished here as a document of historical interest, because from its brevity and its publication in the legislative documents of New York and Massachusetts, it was very widely disseminated and read, and assisted in forming that public sentiment which made Normal Schools possible in these States.

The attention of American scholars was called to the Prussian School System by John Quincy Adams in his "*Letters from Silesia*," first published in London in 1805, and again by Prof. Henry E. Dwight in his "*Travels in the North of Germany*," printed in 1829. The labors of Mr. Woodbridge, and the publication of Mrs. Austin's translation of Cousin's Report on "*Public Instruction in Germany*," by J. Orville Taylor, of New York, in 1835, and the presentation of its most remarkable provision for the professional training of teachers, in the reviews and abstracts of the Report which appeared in England and in this country, in that and the four or five years following, familiarized our leading educators with the system, and with that type of Normal Schools. In 1829, Mr. Woodbridge, with the assistance of Mr. Gallaudet, contemplated the establishment of a Normal School after the Prussian model in Hartford, and in 1831 gave an account of the Teachers' Seminaries in Prussia in the Annals of Education. In August, 1835, a paper on Public Instruction in Prussia, prepared by Miss Eliza Robbins from Cousin's Report, was read by Mr. George S. Hillard before the American Institute of Instruction at its annual meeting in Boston, and in 1836 was issued by Key & Biddle, of Philadelphia, in a duodecimo volume of 180 pages, with pretty full accounts of the Normal Schools at Potsdam, Stettin, and Lastadie. In December, 1835, Rev. Charles Brooks, then of Hingham, Mass., introduced the subject into a Thanksgiving-day discourse and proposed the plan of establishing forthwith a Normal School in Plymouth county. This announcement he followed up with the most enthusiastic persistence, by lecturing on the Prussian system of Normal Schools in all the towns of that county, and in the course of 1837 and 1838, before the Legislatures of Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, and New Jersey, as well as in many of the principal cities of these and other States. The Report of Prof. Stowe in 1837, on "*Elementary Public Instruction in Prussia*," which was printed by the Legislatures of Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts; of Prof. Bache, of Girard College, on "*Education in Europe*," in 1838; of Mr. Mann, on his "*Educational Tour in Europe*," in 1846; and the account of the School System of Prussia, abridged from an article by Sir William Hamilton in the Edinburgh Review, and of the Teachers' Seminaries by Wittich from the annual volume of the Central School Society of England, which appeared in the Connecticut Common School Journal in 1839, and the first edition of Barnard's "*National Education in Europe*," which was first published in 1840 as an Appendix to his Second Report as Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools of Connecticut—and the volume on "*Normal Schools in Europe*," the first edition of which was printed in 1840, made the American public more familiar with the European systems of education, and especially with that of Prussia, than with our own. The new edition of Barnard's "*Normal Schools and other Institutions, Agencies, and Means designed for the Professional Education of Teachers in Europe and the United States*," gives in full the principal documents which led to or accompanied the establishment of Normal Schools in the different States.

MEMORIAL

OF THE

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION TO THE LEGISLATURE OF MASSACHUSETTS ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

(*Submitted January*, 1837.)

TO THE HONORABLE THE LEGISLATURE
OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The Memorial of the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction, praying that provision may be made for the better preparation of the teachers of the schools of the Commonwealth, respectfully showeth:

THAT there is, throughout the Commonwealth, a great want of well-qualified teachers:

That this is felt in all the schools, of all classes, but especially in the most important and numerous class, the district schools:

That wherever, in any town, exertion has been made to improve these schools, it has been met and baffled by the want of good teachers; that they have been sought for in vain; the highest salaries have been offered, to no purpose; that they *are not to be found* in sufficient numbers to supply the demand:—

That their place is supplied by persons exceedingly incompetent, in *many* respects; by young men, in the course of their studies, teaching from necessity, and often with a strong dislike for the pursuit; by mechanics and others wanting present employment; and by persons who, having failed in other callings, take to teaching as a last resort, with no qualifications for it, and no desire of continuing in it longer than they are obliged by an absolute necessity:—

That those among this number who have a natural fitness for the work, now gain the experience, without which no one, whatever his gifts, can become a good teacher, by the sacrifice, winter after winter, of the time and advancement of the children of the schools of the Commonwealth:

That every school is now liable to have a winter's session wasted by the unskillful attempts of an instructor, making his first experiments in teaching: By the close of the season, he may have gained some insight into the mystery, may have hit upon some tolerable method of discipline, may have grown somewhat familiar with the books used and with the character of the children; and, if he could go on in the same school for successive years, might become a profitable teacher: but whatever he may have gained *himself*, from his experiments, he will have failed too entirely of meeting the just expectations of the district, to leave him any hope of being engaged for a second term: He accordingly looks elsewhere for the next season, and the district receives another master, to have the existing regulations set aside, and to undergo another series of experiments: We do not state the fact too strongly, when we say, that *the time, capacities, and opportunities of thousands of the children are now sacrificed, winter after winter*, to the preparation of teachers, who, after this enormous sacrifice, are, notwithstanding, often very wretchedly prepared:

That many times, no preparation is even aimed at: that such is the known demand for teachers of every kind, with or without qualifications, that candidates present themselves for the employment, and committees, in despair of finding better, employ them, who have no degree of fitness for the work: that committees are obliged to employ, to take charge of their children, men to whose incompetency they would reluctantly commit their farms or their workshops:

That the reaction of this deplorable incompetency of the teachers, upon the minds of the committees, is hardly less to be deplored, hardly less alarming, as it threatens to continue the evil and render it perpetual: Finding they cannot get suitable teachers at any price, they naturally apportion the salary to the value of the service rendered, and the consequence is, that, in many places, the wages of a teacher are below those given in the humblest of the mechanic arts;

and instances are known, of persons of tolerable qualifications as teachers, declining to quit, for a season, some of the least gainful of the trades, on the ground of the lowness of the teachers' pay.

We merely state these facts, without enlarging upon them, as they have already too great and melancholy a notoriety. We but add our voice to the deep tone of grief and complaint which sounds from every part of the State.

We are not surprised at this condition of the teachers. We should be surprised if it were much otherwise.

Most of the winter schools are taught for about three months in the year; the summer not far beyond four. They are, therefore, of necessity, taught, and must continue to be taught, by persons who, for two-thirds or three-fourths of the year, have other pursuits, in qualifying themselves for which they have spent the usual period, and which, of course, they look upon as the main business of their lives. They cannot be expected to make great exertions and expensive preparation for the work of teaching, in which the standard is so low, and for which they are so poorly paid.

Whatever desire they might have, it would be almost in vain. There are now no places suited to give them the instruction they need.

For every other profession requiring a knowledge of the principles of science and the conclusions of experience, there are special schools and colleges, with learned and able professors, and ample apparatus. For the preparation of the teachers, there is almost none. In every other art ministering to the wants and conveniences of men, masters may be found ready to impart whatsoever of skill they have to the willing apprentice; and the usage of society justly requires that years should be spent under the eye of an adept, to gain the requisite ability. An apprentice to a schoolmaster is known only in tradition.

We respectfully maintain that it ought not so to be: so much of the intelligence and character, the welfare and immediate and future happiness of all the citizens, now and hereafter, depends on the condition of the common schools, that it is of necessity a matter of the dearest interest to all of the present generation; that the common education is to such a degree the palladium of our liberties, and the good condition of the common schools, in which that education is chiefly obtained, so vitally important to the *stability* of our State, to our very *existence* as a *free* State, that it is the most proper subject for legislation, and calls loudly for legislative provision and protection. The common schools ought to be raised to their proper place; and this can only be done by the better education of the teachers.

We maintain that provision ought to be made by the *State* for the education of teachers; *because*, while their education is so important to the State, their condition generally is such as to put a suitable education entirely beyond their reach; *because*, by no other means is it likely that a system shall be introduced, which shall prevent the immense annual loss of time to the schools, from a change of teachers; and *because*, the qualifications of a first-rate teacher are such as cannot be gained but by giving a considerable time wholly to the work of preparation.

In his calling, there is a peculiar difficulty in the fact, that whereas, in other callings and professions, duties and difficulties come on gradually, and one by one, giving ample time, in the intervals, for special preparation, in *his* they all come at once. On the first day on which he enters the school, his difficulties meet him with a single, unbroken, serried front, as numerously as they ever will; and they refuse to be separated. He cannot divide and overcome them singly, putting off the more formidable to wrestle with at a future time; he could only have met them with complete success, by long forecast, by months and years of preparation.

The qualifications requisite in a good teacher, of which many have so low and inadequate an idea, as to think them almost the instinctive attributes of every man and every woman, we maintain to be excellent qualities, rarely united in a high degree in the same individual, and to obtain which one *must* give, and may *well* give, much time and study.

We begin with the *lowest*. He must have a *thorough knowledge* of whatever he undertakes to teach. If it were not so common, how absurd would it seem, that one should undertake to communicate to another fluency and grace in the

beautiful accomplishment of reading, without having them himself; or to give skill in the processes of arithmetic, while he understood it so dimly himself as to be obliged to follow the rules, as blindly as the child he was teaching! And yet, are there not many teachers yearly employed by committees, from the impossibility of finding better, who, in reading and arithmetic, as in every thing else, are but one step before, if they do not fall behind, the foremost of their own pupils? Is it not so in geography, in English grammar, in every thing, in short, which is now required to be taught?

If the teacher understood thoroughly what is required in the usual, prescribed course, it would be *something*. But we maintain that the teachers of the public schools ought to be able to *do much more*. In every school occasions are daily occurring, on which, from a well-stored mind, could be imparted, upon the most interesting and important subjects, much that would be of the greatest value to the learner, at the impressible period of his pupilage. Ought not these occasions to be provided for? Besides, there are always at least a few forward pupils, full of talent, ready to make advances far beyond the common course. Such, if their teacher could conduct them, would rejoice, instead of circling again and again in the same dull round, to go *onward*, in other and higher studies, so manifestly valuable, that the usual studies of a school seem but as steps, intended to lead up to them.

In the second place, a teacher should so understand the *ordering* and *discipline* of a school, as to be able at once to introduce system, and to keep it constantly in force. Much precious time, as already stated, is lost in making, changing, abrogating, modeling and remodeling rules and regulations. And not only is the time *utterly lost*, but the changes are a source of *perplexity* and *vexation* to master and pupil. A judicious system of regulations not only takes up no time, but *saves* time for every thing else. We believe there are few persons to whom this knowledge of system comes without an effort, who are *born* with such an aptitude to order that they fall into it naturally and of course.

In the third place, a teacher should know *how* to teach. This, we believe, is the rarest and best of his qualifications. Without it, great knowledge, however pleasant to the possessor, will be of little use to his pupils; and with it, a small fund will be made to produce great effects. It cannot, with propriety, be considered a single faculty. It is rather a practical knowledge of the best methods of bringing the truths of the several subjects that are to be taught, to the comprehension of the learner. Not often does the same method apply to several studies. It must vary with the nature of the truths to be communicated, and with the age, capacity, and advancement of the pupil. To possess it fully, one must have ready command of elementary principles, a habit of seeing them in various points of view, and of promptly seizing the one best suited to the learner; a power of awakening his curiosity, and of adapting the lessons to the mind, so as to bring out its faculties naturally and without violence. It therefore supposes an acquaintance with the *minds* of children, the order in which their faculties expand, and by what discipline they may be nurtured, and their inequalities repaired.

This knowledge of the human mind and character may be stated as a fourth qualification of a teacher. Without it, he will be always groping his way darkly. He will disgust the forward and quick-witted, by making them linger along with the slow; and dishearten the slow, by expecting them to keep pace with the swift. He will fail of the peculiar end of right education, the quickening to life and action those faculties which, without his fostering care, would have been left to lie dormant.

Whoever considers to how great a degree the successful action of the mind depends on the state of the feelings and affections, will be ready to admit that an instructor should know so much of the connection and subordination of the parts of the human character, as to be able to enlist them all in the same cause, to gain the *heart* to the side of advancement, and to make the *affections* the ministers of truth and wisdom.

We have spoken very briefly of some of the qualifications essential to a good teacher. It is hardly necessary to say, that there are still higher qualifications, which ought to belong to the persons who are to have such an influence upon the character and well-being of the future citizens of the Commonwealth; who, be-

sides parents, can do more than all others toward training the young to a clear perception of right and wrong, to the love of truth, to reverence for the laws of man and of God, to the performance of all the duties of good citizens and good men. The teacher ought to be a person of elevated character, able to win by his manners and instruct by his example, *without* as well as *within* the school.

Now it is known to your memorialists that a very large number of those, of both sexes, who now teach the summer and the winter schools, are, *to a mournful degree*, wanting in all these qualifications. Far from being able to avail themselves of opportunities of communicating knowledge on various subjects, they are grossly ignorant of what they are called on to teach. They are often without experience in managing a school; they have no skill in communicating. Instead of being able to stimulate and guide to all that is noble and excellent, they are, not seldom, persons of such doubtful respectability and refinement of character, that no one would think, for a moment, of holding them up as models to their pupils. In short, they know not *what* to teach, nor *how* to teach, nor in *what spirit* to teach, nor what is the nature of *those* they undertake to *lead*, nor what they are *themselves*, who stand forward to lead them.

Your memorialists believe that these are evils *of portentous moment* to the future welfare of the people of this Commonwealth, and that, while they bear heavily on all, they bear especially and with disproportioned weight upon the poorer districts in the scattered population of the country towns. The wealthy are less directly affected by them, as they can send their children from home to the better schools in other places. The large towns are not affected in the same degree, as their density of population enables them to employ teachers through the year, at salaries which command somewhat higher qualifications.

We believe that you have it in your power to adopt such measures as shall forthwith diminish these evils, and at last remove them; and that this can only be done by providing for the better preparation of teachers.

We therefore pray you to consider the expediency of instituting, for the special instruction of teachers, one or more seminaries, either standing independently, or in connection with institutions already existing; as you shall, in your wisdom, think best.

We also beg leave to state what we conceive to be essential to such a seminary.

1. There should be a professor or professors, of piety, of irreproachable character and good education, and of tried ability and skill in teaching.

2. A library, not necessarily large, but well chosen, of books on subjects to be taught, and on the art of teaching.

3. School-rooms, well situated, and arranged, heated, ventilated, and furnished, in the manner best approved by experienced teachers.

4. A select apparatus of globes, maps, and other instruments most useful for illustration.

5. A situation such that a school may be connected with the seminary, accessible by a sufficient number of children, to give the variety of an ordinary district school.

We beg leave also further to state the manner in which we conceive that such a seminary would be immediately useful to the schools within the sphere of its influence.

We do not believe that the majority of the district schools in the Commonwealth will soon, if ever, be taught by permanent teachers. We believe that they will continue to be taught, as they are now, by persons who, for the greater part of the year, will be engaged in some other pursuit: that, as in the early history of Rome, the generous husbandman left his plough to fight the battles of the state, so, in Massachusetts, the free and intelligent citizen will, for a time, quit his business, his workshop, or his farm, to fight, for the sake of his children and the state, a more vital battle against immorality and ignorance. And we rejoice to believe that it will be so. So shall the hearts of the fathers be in the schools of their children: so shall the teachers have that knowledge of the world, that acquaintance with men and things, so often wanting in the mere schoolmaster, and yet not among the least essential of his qualifications.

But we wish to see these citizens enjoy the means of obtaining the knowledge

and practical skill in the art of teaching, which shall enable them to perform the duties of their additional office worthily.

Establish a seminary wherever you please, and it will be immediately resorted to. We trust too confidently in that desire of excellence which seems to be an element in our New England character, to doubt that any young man, who, looking forward, sees that he shall have occasion to teach a school every winter for ten years, will avail himself of any means within his reach, of preparation for the work. Give him the opportunity, and he cannot fail to be essentially benefited by his attendance at the seminary, if it be but for a *single month*.

In the first place, he will see there an example of right ordering and management of a school; the spirit of which he may immediately imbibe, and can never after be at a loss, as to a *model* of management, or in doubt as to its *importance*.

In the second place, by listening to the teaching of another, he will be convinced of the necessity of preparation, as he will see that success depends on thorough knowledge and a direct action of the teacher's own mind. This alone would be a great point, as many a schoolmaster hears reading and spelling, and looks over writing and arithmetic, without ever attempting to give any instruction or explanation, or even thinking them necessary.

In the third place, he will see put in practice methods of teaching; and though he may, on reflection, conclude that none of them are exactly suited to his own mind, he will see the value of method, and will never after proceed as he would have done, if he had never seen methodical teaching at all.

In the next place, he will have new light thrown upon the whole work of education, by being made to perceive that its great end is not mechanically to communicate ability in certain operations, but to draw forth and exercise the whole powers of the physical, intellectual, and moral being.

He will, moreover, hardly fail to observe the importance of the *manners* of an instructor, and how far it depends on himself to give a tone of cheerfulness and alacrity to his school.

In the last place, if the right spirit prevail at the seminary, he will be prepared to enter upon his office with an exalted sense of its importance and responsibility—not as a poor drudge, performing a loathsome office for a miserable stipend, but as a delegate of the authority of *parents* and the *State*, to form men to the *high duties of citizens* and the *infinite destinies of immortality*, answerable to them, their country, and their God for the righteous discharge of his duties.

Now we believe that this single month's preparation would be of immense advantage to a young instructor.

Let him now enter the district school. He has a definite idea of what arrangements he is to make, what course he is to pursue, what he is to take hold of first. He knows that he is himself to teach, he knows *what* to teach, and, in some measure, *how he is to set about it*. He feels how much he has to do to prepare himself, and how much depends on his self-preparation. He has some conception of the duties and responsibilities of his office. At the end of a single season, he will, we venture to say, be a better teacher than he could have been after half a dozen, had he not availed himself of the experience of others. He will hardly fail to seek future occasions to draw more largely at the same fountain.

Let us not be understood as offering this statement of probable results as mere conjecture. They have been confirmed by all the experience, to the point, of a single institution in this State, and of many in a foreign country. What is thus, from experience and the reason of things, shown to be true in regard to a short preparation, will be still more strikingly so of a longer one.

To him, who shall make teaching the occupation of his life, the advantages of a Teachers' Seminary cannot easily be estimated. They can be faintly imagined by him only, who, lawyer, mechanic, or physician, can figure to himself what would have been his feelings, had he, on the first day of his apprenticeship, been called to perform, at once, the duties of his future profession, and, after being left to suffer for a time the agony of despair at the impossibility, had been told that two, three, seven years should be allowed him to prepare himself, with all the helps and appliances which are now so bountifully furnished to him,—which are furnished to *every one* except the teacher.

We have no doubt that teachers, prepared at such a seminary, would be in

such request as to command, at once, higher pay than is now given, since it would unquestionably be found good economy to employ them.

It raises no objection, in the minds of your memorialists, to the plan of a seminary at the State's expense, that many of the instructors there prepared would teach for only a portion of the year. It is *on that very ground* that they ought to be aided. For their daily callings they will take care to qualify themselves; they cannot, unaided, be expected to do the same in regard to the office of teacher, because it is a casual and temporary one; it is one which they will exercise, in the intervals of their stated business, for the good of their fellow-citizens. They ought, for that especial reason, to be assisted in preparing for it. The gain will be theirs, it is true; but it will be still more the gain of the community. It will be theirs, inasmuch as they will be able to command better salaries; but it will be only in consideration of the more valuable services they will render. The gain will be shared by other schools than those they teach. Seeing what can be done by *good* teachers, districts and committees will no longer rest satisfied with *poor*, and the standard will every where rise.

If it were only as enabling teachers throughout the State to teach, as they should, the branches now required to be taught, the seminaries would be worth more than their establishment can cost. But they would do much more. They would render the instruction given more worthy, in kind and degree, the enlightened citizens of a free State.

Without going too minutely into this part of the subject, we cannot fully show how the course of instruction might, in our judgment, be enlarged. We may be allowed to indicate a few particulars.

The study of geometry, that benignant nurse of inventive genius, is at present pursued partially, in a few of the town schools. We may safely assert that, under efficient teachers, the time now given to arithmetic would be amply sufficient, not only for that, but for geometry, and its most important applications in surveying and other useful arts. To a population so full of mechanical talent as ours, this is a lamentable omission.

We may also point to the case of drawing in right lines. It might, with a saving of time, be ingrafted on writing, if the instructors were qualified to teach it. This beautiful art, so valuable as a guide to the hand and eye of every one, especially of every handcraftsman, and deemed almost an essential in every school of France, and other countries of Europe, is, so far as we can learn from the Secretary's excellent report, entirely neglected in every public school in Massachusetts.

We might make similar observations in regard to book-keeping, now beginning to be introduced; natural philosophy, physiology, natural history, and other studies, which might come in, not to the exclusion, but to the manifest improvement, of the studies already pursued.

When we consider the many weeks in our long northern winters, during which, all through our borders, the arts of the husbandman and builder seem, like the processes of the vegetable world, to hold holiday, and the sound of many a trowel and many an ax and hammer ceases to be heard, and the hours, without any interruption of the busy labors of the year, might be given to learning by the youth of both sexes, almost up to the age of maturity, these *omissions*, the *unemployed intellect*, the golden days of early manhood *lost*, the acquisitions that *might* be made and *are not*, assume a vastness of importance which may well alarm us.

It may possibly be apprehended, that should superior teachers be prepared in the seminaries of Massachusetts, they would be invited to other States by higher salaries, and the advantage of their education be thus lost to the State. We know not that it ought to be considered an undesirable thing that natives of Massachusetts, who will certainly go, from time to time, to regions more favored by nature, should go with such characters and endowments as to render their chosen homes more worthy to be the residence of intelligent men. But we apprehend it to be an event much more likely to happen, that the successful example of Massachusetts should be imitated by her sister republics, emulous, as New York already shows herself, of surpassing us in what has hitherto been the chief glory of New England, a jealous care of the public schools.

For the elevation of the public schools to the high rank which they ought to

hold in a community, whose most precious patrimony is their liberty, and the intelligence, knowledge, and virtue on which alone it can rest, we urge our prayer. We speak boldly, for we seek no private end. We speak in the name and behalf of those who cannot appear before you to urge their own suit, the sons and daughters of the present race, and of all, of every race and class of coming generations in all future times.

For the directors of the American Institute of Instruction.

George B. Emerson; S. R. Hall; W. J. Adams; D. Kimball; E. A. Andrews; B. Greenleaf; N. Cleveland, *Committee.*

The above Memorial was prepared in pursuance of the following votes of the Institute.

At the Annual Meeting, in Boston, in August, 1836, the subject of the Professional Education of Teachers was ably discussed, and the following resolutions, offered by Mr. Frederic Emerson, of Boston, were adopted:—

Resolved, "That the business of teaching should be performed by those who have studied the subject of instruction as a profession. Therefore,

Resolved, That there ought to be at least one seminary in each state, devoted exclusively to the education of teachers; and that this seminary should be authorized to confer appropriate degrees."

At a later period of the session, Mr. Morton, of Plymouth, proposed another resolution for the purpose of securing some action:—

Resolved, "That a committee be appointed to obtain funds by soliciting our State Legislature the next session, and by inviting individual donations for the purchase of land and the erection of the necessary buildings, and to put in operation a seminary to qualify teachers of youth for the most important occupation of mankind on the earth."

After a long and ardent debate, the following was offered as an amendment, by Mr. F. Emerson, and was adopted:—

Ordered, "That the Board of Directors be instructed to memorialize the Legislature on the subject of establishing a seminary for the "*education of teachers.*"

A memorial was accordingly prepared by Mr. George B. Emerson, in behalf of a committee of the Directors, and submitted to the Legislature in January, 1837, by whose order it was printed and circulated with the other documents of the session. This paper is the ablest argument in behalf of a Normal School which had appeared up to that date; and will not suffer in comparison with any which the discussion of the subject has at any time called forth. It however did not lead to any legislative action during that session, but undoubtedly prepared the way. In the mean time, the Legislature, on the recommendation of the Governor, and of the Committee of Education, of which James G. Carter was chairman, and of a Memorial by the Directors of the Institute in 1836, which was drawn up by Mr. George B. Emerson, passed an Act instituting the Board of Education.

By the action of this Board, and the labors of its Secretary, and the well-timed liberality of Edmund Dwight, in 1838, the idea of a Normal School, so long advocated by the friends of school improvement, became a recognized fact in the legislation of Massachusetts. Previous to any action on the part of the Legislature, an experiment had been commenced as a private enterprise at Andover, in connection with one of the best conducted academies of the state.

State Normal Schools in Massachusetts.

The following brief account of the history and organization of the State Normal Schools, in Massachusetts, is copied from the "Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education."

"In a communication made by the Secretary of the Board of Education to the Legislature, dated March 12, 1838, it was stated that private munificence had placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be expended, under the direction of the Board of Education, for qualifying teachers for our Common Schools, on condition that the Legislature would place in the hands of the Board an equal sum, to be expended for the same purpose.

On the 19th of April, of the same year, resolves were passed, accepting the proposition, and authorizing the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the treasurer for the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be placed at the disposal of the Board for the purpose specified in the original communication."

The following is a copy of the Resolve and of the Report of the Committee on the subject:

"The Joint Committee, to whom was referred the communication of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, relative to a fund for the promotion of the cause of popular education in this Commonwealth, and also the memorial of the Nantucket County Association for the promotion of education, and the improvement of schools, and also the petition and memorial of the inhabitants of the town of Nantucket, on the same subject, having duly considered the matter therein embraced, respectfully report,

That the highest interest in Massachusetts is, and will always continue to be, the just and equal instruction of all her citizens, so far as the circumstances of each individual will permit to be imparted; that her chief glory, for two hundred years, has been the extent to which this instruction was diffused, the result of the provident legislation, to promote the common cause, and secure the perpetuity of the common interest; that for many years a well-grounded apprehension has been entertained, of the neglect of our common town schools by large portions of our community, and of the comparative degradation to which these institutions might fall from such neglect; that the friends of universal education have long looked to the Legislature for the establishment of one or more seminaries devoted to the purpose of supplying qualified teachers, for the town and district schools, by whose action alone other judicious provisions of the law could be carried into full effect; that at various times, the deliberation of both branches of the General Court has been bestowed upon this, among other subjects, most intimately relating to the benefit of the rising generation and of all generations to come, particularly when the provision for instruction of school teachers was specially urged on their consideration, in 1827, by the message of the Governor, and a report thereupon, accompanied by a bill, was submitted by the chairman, now a member of the Congress of the United States, following out to their fair conclusions, the suggestion of the Executive, and the forcible essays of a distinguished advocate of this institution at great length, published and widely promulgated; that although much has been done within two or three years, for the encouragement of our town schools by positive enactment, and more by the liberal spirit, newly awakened in our several communities, yet the number of competent teachers is found, by universal experience, so far inadequate to supply the demand for them, as to be the principal obstacle to improvement, and the greatest deficiency of our republic; that we can hardly expect, as in the memorials from Nantucket is suggested, to remove this deficiency even in a partial degree, much less to realize the completion of the felicitous system of our free schools, without adopting means for

more uniform modes of tuition and government in them, without better observing the rules of prudence in the selection of our common books, the unlimited diversity of which is complained of throughout the State, and that these benefits may reasonably be expected to follow from no other course than a well-devised scheme in full operation, for the education of teachers; that the announcement, in the communication recently received from the Secretary of the Board of Education, of that private munificence, which offers $10,000 to this Commonwealth, for removal of this general want, at least in the adoption of initiatory measures of remedy, is received by us with peculiar pleasure, and, in order that the General Court may consummate this good, by carrying forward the benevolent object of the unknown benefactor, the committee conclude, with recommending the passage of the subjoined resolutions.

All which is respectfully submitted,

JAMES SAVAGE, per order.

RESOLVES

RELATIVE TO QUALIFYING TEACHERS FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

Whereas, by letter from the Honorable Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, addressed, on the 12th March current, to the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, it appears, that private munificence has placed at his disposal the sum of ten thousand dollars, to promote the cause of popular education in Massachusetts, on condition that the Commonwealth will contribute from unappropriated funds, the same amount in aid of the same cause, the two sums to be drawn upon equally from time to time, as needed, and to be disbursed under the direction of the Board of Education in qualifying teachers for our Common Schools; therefore,

Resolved, That his Excellency, the Governor, be, and he is hereby authorized and requested, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the Treasurer of the Commonwealth in favor of the Board of Education, for the sum of $10,000, in such installments and at such times, as said Board may request: *provided*, said Board, in their request, shall certify, that the Secretary of said Board has placed at their disposal an amount equal to that for which such application may by them be made; both sums to be expended, under the direction of said Board, in qualifying teachers for the Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Resolved, That the Board of Education shall render an annual account of the manner in which said moneys have been by them expended."

"The Board, after mature deliberation, decided to establish three Normal Schools; one for the north-eastern, one for the south-eastern, and one for the western part of the State. Accordingly, one was opened at Lexington, in the county of Middlesex, on the 3d day of July, 1839. This school, having outgrown its accommodations at Lexington, was removed to West Newton, in the same county, in Sept., 1844, where it now occupies a commodious building.

The second Normal School was opened at Barre, in the county of Worcester, on the 4th day of September, 1839. This school has since been removed to Westfield, in the county of Hampden, both on account of the insufficiency of the accommodations at Barre, and because the latter place is situated east of the centre of population of the western counties.

The third school was opened at Bridgewater, on the 9th day of Sept., 1840, and is permanently located at that place.

For the two last-named schools, there had been, from the beginning, very inadequate school-room accommodations. In the winter of 1845, a memorial, on behalf of certain friends of education in the city of Boston and its vicinity, was presented to the Legislature, offering the sum of five thousand dollars, to be obtained by private subscriptions, on condition that the Legislature would give an equal sum, for the purpose of erecting two Normal School-houses; one for the school at Westfield and one for that at Bridgewater. By resolves of March 20, 1845, the proposition of

the memorialists was accepted and the grant made; and by the same resolves it was ordered, 'that the schools heretofore known as Normal Schools, shall be hereafter designated as State Normal Schools.'

The school at West Newton is appropriated exclusively to females; those at Bridgewater and Westfield admit both sexes.

Among the standing regulations adopted by the Board, for the government of the State Normal Schools, are the following—most of which were adopted in the beginning, and have been constantly in force; only a few modifications, and those very slight ones, having since been introduced:

ADMISSION. As a prerequisite to admission, candidates must declare it to be their intention to qualify themselves to become school teachers. If they belong to the State, or have an intention and a reasonable expectation of keeping school in the State, tuition is gratuitous. Otherwise, a tuition-fee is charged, which is intended to be about the same as is usually charged at good academies in the same neighborhood. If pupils, after having completed a course of study at the State Normal Schools, immediately engage in school keeping, but leave the State, or enter a private school or an academy, they are considered as having waived the privilege growing out of their declared intention to keep a Common School in Massachusetts, and are held bound in honor to pay a tuition-fee for their instruction.

If males, pupils must have attained the age of seventeen years complete, and of sixteen, if females; and they must be free from any disease or infirmity, which would unfit them for the office of school teachers.

They must undergo an examination, and prove themselves to be well versed in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic.

They must furnish satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and of high moral character and principles.

Examinations for admission take place at the commencement of each term, of which there are three in a year.

TERM OF STUDY. ~~At West Newton and Bridgewater,~~ the minimum of the term of study is one year, and this must be in consecutive terms of the schools. In regard to the school at Westfield, owing to the unwillingness of the pupils in that section of the State to remain at the school, even for so short a time as one year, the rule requiring a year's residence has been from time to time suspended. It is found to be universally true, that those applicants whose qualifications are best, are desirous to remain at the school the longest.

COURSE OF STUDY. The studies first to be attended to in the State Normal Schools, are those which the law requires to be taught in the district schools, namely, orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic. When these are mastered, those of a higher order will be progressively taken.

For those who wish to remain at the school more than one year, and for all belonging to the school, so far as their previous attainments will permit, the following course is arranged:

1. Orthography, reading, grammar, composition, rhetoric and logic.
2. Writing and drawing.
3. Arithmetic, mental and written, algebra, geometry, book-keeping, navigation, surveying.
4. Geography, ancient and modern, with chronology, statistics and general history.
5. Human Physiology, and hygiene or the Laws of Health.
6. Mental Philosophy.
7 Music.

8. Constitution and History of Massachusetts and of the United States.
9. Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.
10. Natural History.
11. The principles of piety and morality, common to all sects of Christians.
12. THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING WITH REFERENCE TO ALL THE ABOVE NAMED STUDIES.

RELIGIOUS EXERCISES. A portion of the Scriptures shall be read daily, in every State Normal School.

VISITERS. Each Normal School is under the immediate inspection of a Board of Visiters, who are in all cases to be members of the Board of Education, except that the Secretary of the Board may be appointed as one of the visiters of each school.

The Board appoints one Principal Instructor for each school, who is responsible for its government and instruction, subject to the rules of the Board, and the supervision of the Visiters. The Visiters of the respective schools appoint the assistant instructors thereof.

To each Normal School, an Experimental or Model School is attached. This School is under the control of the Principal of the Normal School. The pupils of the Normal School assist in teaching it. Here, the knowledge which they acquire in the science of teaching, is practically applied. The art is made to grow out of the science, instead of being empirical. The Principal of the Normal School inspects the Model School more or less, daily. He observes the manner in which his own pupils exemplify, in practice, the principles he has taught them. Sometimes, all the pupils of the Normal School, together with the Principal, visit the Model School in a body, to observe the manner in which the teachers of the latter, for the time being, conduct the recitations or exercises. Then, returning to their own school-room, in company with the assistant teachers themselves, who have been the objects of inspection, each one is called upon to deliver his views, whether commendatory or otherwise, respecting the manner in which the work has been performed. At this amicable exposition of merits and defects, the Principal of the Normal School presides. After all others have presented their views, he delivers his own; and thus his pupils, at the threshold of their practice, have an opportunity to acquire confidence in a good cause, of which they might otherwise entertain doubts, and to rectify errors which otherwise would fossilize into habit.

The salaries of the teachers of the State Normal Schools are paid by the State."

The following Rules were adopted for the regulation of the Normal Schools, at a meeting of the Board of Education, held in December, 1849.

1. No new applicants for admission to the Normal Schools shall be received, except at the commencement of the term.
2. It shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Board and of one of the visitors to be present on the first day of the term, for the examination of the candidates for admission.
3. There shall be two periods for the admission of new members, the time to be fixed by the visitors of each school.
4. Candidates for admission at the West Newton Normal School must promise to remain four consecutive terms; and at the other Normal Schools, three consecutive terms. An exception may be made in the case of persons of more than ordinary experience and attainments.
5. It shall be the duty of the principals of the several Normal Schools to make a report, at the end of each term, to the visitors, and if, in their judgment, any do not promise to be useful as teachers, they shall be dismissed.
6. The course of study in each of the Normal Schools shall begin with a re-

view of the studies pursued in the common schools, viz: reading, writing, orthography, English grammar, mental and written arithmetic, geography, and physiology.

7. The attention of pupils, in the Normal Schools, shall be directed, 1. To a thorough review of elementary studies; 2. To those branches of knowledge which may be considered as an expansion of the above-named elementary studies, or collateral to them; 3. To the art of teaching and its modes.

8. The advanced studies shall be equally proportioned, according to the following distribution, into three departments, viz.: 1. The mathematical, including algebra through quadratic equations; geometry, to an amount equal to three books in Euclid; book-keeping; and surveying. 2. The philosophical, including natural philosophy, astronomy, moral and intellectual philosophy, natural history, particularly that of our own country, and so much of chemistry as relates to the atmosphere, the waters, and the growth of plants and animals. 3. The literary, including the critical study of the English language, both in its structure and history, with an outline of the history of English literature; the history of the United States, with such a survey of general history as may be a suitable preparation for it; and historical geography, ancient and mediæval, so far as is necessary to understand general history, from the earliest times to the period of the French Revolution.

9. "The art of teaching and its modes" shall include instruction on the philosophy of teaching and discipline, as drawn from the nature and condition of the juvenile mind; the history of the progress of the art, and the application of it to our system of education; and as much exercise in teaching under constant supervision, toward the close of the course, as the circumstances and interests of the model schools will allow.

10. Members of the Normal Schools may, with the consent of the respective boards of visitors, remain as much longer than the period required, as they may desire.

NOTE. 1866.

The Normal School first located at Lexington in 1839, and removed to West Newton in 1844, was in 1853 removed to Framingham. A fourth State Normal School was established in Salem in 1853—and like that at Framingham is devoted exclusively to the education and professional training of young women as teachers, while those at Westfield and Bridgewater admit young persons of both sexes.

The State appropriates a thousand dollars a year to each school, or four thousand dollars in all, for the aid of pupils whose means are inadequate, and to equalize the expense of attendance.

In the year 1864, the State appropriated $20,000 to the annual expenses of the four State Normal Schools, besides $2,490.85 towards the repair and enlargement of buildings.

In addition to the sum appropriated by the State, the Board of Education apply the income of the "Todd Fund," (the avails of a bequest by Henry Todd of Boston in 1849, amounting to $12,000,) to the payment of teachers of music, and of lecturers in natural science.

A particular account of each of these State Normal Schools will be given.

In addition to the State Normal Schools, the city of Boston established in 1852 a Normal School for female teachers, which is now maintained as the Girls' High and Normal School; and in 1864, a Special Department in the same, for training teachers for the Primary Schools.

V. THE ORIGINAL GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF NEW ENGLAND.

THE FREE TOWN SCHOOL OF DORCHESTER.*

THE first Town School established in Dorchester, in May, 1639, was a Grammar School for instruction in "English, Latin, and other tongues," and was supported out of an endowment in the lands of Thompson's Island granted by the General Court to the inhabitants of the town of Dorchester, on the 4th of March, 1634–5. The occupants of these lands were assessed by the Town in 1639 a certain proportionate "rent" (20 pounds) towards the maintenance of a (not a *free*) school. This "rent of 20 pounds yearly," was not collected from all the inhabitants of the town, but only from the proprietors of this Island, and was to be paid "to such a schoolmaster as shall undertake to teach english, latine, and other tongues, and also writing;" and the seven (select) men were to decide from time to time whether "the maydes shall be taught with the boys or not." It appears from the records of the time, that "such girls as can read in the Psalter," were for the first time allowed to attend a Grammar School in 1784, "from the 1st of June to the first of October."

Owing to a difficulty in collecting the rents, a voluntary agreement was made in 1641 by certain inhabitants of the Town of Dorchester "whose names are hereunto subscribed," "for themselves and their heirs," by which their interest in Thompson Island was conveyed to the town for the maintenance of a free school for instructing children and youth in good literature and learning." To this school other donations were made by the General Court and by individuals. In 1659, the Court donates to the Dorchester people 1000 acres of land "where they can find it according to law," in consideration of a loss of title by the town to the Island, by which the town school was endangered. In 1655, John Clap gave by will a house and land "for the maintenance of the ministry and a school in Dorchester for ever," out of which the town realized $13,590. In 1673, John Howard donated £20, and in 1674 Christopher Gilson devised "the residue of his property after paying his debts, to the free school of Dorchester in perpetuity." In 1701, Gov. Stoughton, and in 1797, Hon. James Bowdoin, made liberal donations to the school. In the early history of this school, as of the original "free school," the teacher was paid, beyond the avails of the endowment, a certain sum by each pupil, which was not unfrequently paid in produce. Mr. Ichabod Wisner, received either for rent or tuition, "4 bushels of Indian Corn from Mr. Patten, 2 of Ensigne Foster, and peas of Arthur Brecke."

The custom also prevailed in Dorchester of paying part of the expense of the school, by assessing the cost of fuel on "them who send their children to schoole." In 1688, it was provided that those who send to the school shall bring for each child a load of wood," "and those who bring it in log-wood are to cut it after it come to the school-hous." In 1710, the parents could commute by "paying two shillings and sixpence in money, to be delivered to the school-

* See chapter on Schools by Mr. A. B. Trask, in the History of the Town of Dorchester, 1859.

master within one month after the 29th of September annually, or their children to have no privilege of the fire." This is certainly not a *free school* according to our modern notions. In 1713 the commutation was increased to three shillings and sixpence. In 1731, a writing school was voted for the south end.

The following rules and orders, concerning the original Town School of Dorchester were drawn up by the wardens of the school, and confirmed by the major part of the inhabitants in 1645, when the school was first opened:—

RULES FOR THE ORDERING OF THE TOWN SCHOOL OF DORCHESTER IN 1645.

"*First.* It is ordered that three able and sufficient men of the plantation shall be chosen to be wardens or overseers of the school, who shall have the charge, oversight and ordering thereof, and of all things concerning the same in such manner as is hereafter expressed, and shall continue in their office and place for term of their lives respectively, unless by reason of any of them removing his habitation out of the town, or for any other weighty reason, the inhabitants shall see cause to elect and choose others in their room, in which cases and upon the death of any of the same wardens, the inhabitants shall make a new election and choice of others. And Mr. Haward, Deacon Wiswall, Mr. Atherton are elected to be the first wardens or overseers.

"*Secondly.* The said wardens shall have full power to dispose of the school stock, whether the same be in land or otherwise, both such as is already in being and such as may by any good means hereafter be added; and shall collect and receive the rents, issues and profits arising and growing of and from the said stock. And the said rents, issues and profits shall employ and lay out only for the best behoof and advantage of the said school, and the furtherance of learning thereby, and shall give a faithful and true account of their receipts and disbursements so often as they shall be thereunto required by the inhabitants or the major part of them.

Thirdly. The said wardens shall take care and do their utmost and best endeavor that the said school may from time to time be supplied with an able and sufficient schoolmaster who nevertheless is not to be admitted into the place of schoolmaster without the general consent of the inhabitants or the major part of them.

Fourthly. So often as the said school shall be supplied with a schoolmaster so provided and admitted as aforesaid, the wardens shall from time to time pay or cause to be paid unto the said schoolmaster such wages out of the rents, issues and profits of the school stock as shall of right come due to be paid.

Fifthly. The said wardens shall from time to time see that the school-house be kept in good and sufficient repair, the charges of which reparation shall be defrayed and paid out of such rents, issues and profits of that school stock if there be sufficient, or else of such rents as shall arise and grow in the time of the vacancy of the schoolmaster if there be any such—and in defect of such vacancy the wardens shall repair to the 7 [select] men of the town for the time being, who shall have power to tax the town with such sum or sums as shall be requested for the repairing of the school-house as aforesaid.

Sixthly. The said wardens shall take care that every year at or before the end of the 9th month there be brought to the school-house twelve sufficient cart or wain loads of wood for fuel, to be for the use of the schoolmaster and the scholars in winter, the cost and charge of which said wood to be borne by the scholars for the time being who shall be taxed for the purpose at the discretion of the said wardens.

Lastly. The said wardens shall take care that the schoolmaster for the time being do faithfully perform his duty in his place, as a schoolmaster ought to do, as well in other things as in these which are hereafter expressed, viz:—

1st. That the schoolmaster shall diligently attend his school, and do his utmost endeavor for benefiting his scholars according to his best discretion, without unnecessarily absenting himself to the prejudice of his scholars and hindering their learning.

2dly. That from the beginning of the first month until the end of the seventh, he shall every day begin to teach at seven of the clock in the morning and dismiss his scholars at five in the afternoon. And for the other five months, that

is, from the beginning of the eighth month until the end of the twelfth month he shall every day begin at eight of the clock in the morning, and [end] at four in the afternoon.

3dly. Every day in the year the usual time of dismissing at noon shall be at eleven, and to begin again at one, except that

4thly. Every second day in the week he shall call his scholars together between twelve and one of the clock to examine them what they have learned on the sabbath day preceding, at which time also he shall take notice of any misdemeanor or outrage that any of his scholars shall have committed on the sabbath, to the end that at some convenient time due admonition and correction may be administered by him according as the nature and quality of the offense shall require, at which said examination any of the elders or other inhabitants that please may be present, to behold his religious care herein, and to give their countenance and approbation of the same.

5thly. He shall equally and impartially receive and instruct such as shall be sent and committed to him for that end, whether their parents be poor or rich, not refusing any who have right and interest in the school.

6thly. Such as shall be committed to him he shall diligently instruct, as they shall be able to learn, both in humane learning and good literature, and likewise in point of good manners and dutiful behavior towards all, especially their superiors as they shall have occasion to be in their presence, whether by meeting them in the street or otherwise.

7thly. Every day of the week at two of the clock in the afternoon, he shall catechise his scholars in the principles of Christian religion, either in some catechism which the wardens shall provide and present, or in defect thereof in some other.

8thly. And because all man's endeavors without the blessing of God must needs be fruitless and unsuccessful, therefore it is to be a chief part of the schoolmaster's religious care to commend his scholars and his labors amongst them unto God by prayer morning and evening, taking care that his scholars do reverently attend during the same.

9thly. And because the rod of correction is an ordinance of God necessary sometimes to be dispensed unto children, but such as may easily be abused by overmuch severity and rigor on the one hand, or by overmuch indulgence and lenity on the other, it is therefore ordered and agreed that the schoolmaster for the time being shall have full power to minister correction to all or any of his scholars without respect of persons, according to the nature and quality of the offense shall require; whereto all his scholars must be duly subject; and no parent or other of the inhabitants shall hinder or go about to hinder the master therein: nevertheless if any parent or other shall think there is just cause of complaint against the master for too much severity such shall have liberty friendly and lovingly to expostulate with the master about the same; and if they shall not attain to satisfaction, the matter is then to be referred to the wardens, who shall impartially judge betwixt the master and such complainants. And if it shall appear to them that any parent shall make causeless complaint against the master in this behalf, and shall persist in and continue so doing, in such case the wardens shall have power to discharge the master of the care and charge of the children of such parents. But if the thing complained of be true, and that the master have indeed been guilty of ministering excessive correction, and shall appear to them to continue therein, notwithstanding that they have advised him otherwise, in such case, as also in the case of too much lenity or any other great neglect of duty in his case persisted in, it shall be in the power of the wardens to call the inhabitants together to consider whether it were not meet to discharge the master of his place, that so some other more desirable may be provided. And because it is difficult, if not impossible, to give particular rules that shall reach all cases which may fall out, therefore, for a conclusion, it is ordered and agreed in general, that, where particular rules are wanting, there it shall be a part of the office and duty of the wardens to order and dispose of all things that concern the school, in such sort as in their wisdom and discretion they shall judge most conducible for the glory of God and the training up of the children of the town in religion, learning, and civility:—And these orders to be continued till the major part of the town shall see cause to alter any part thereof."

master within one month after the 29th of September annually, or their children to have no privilege of the fire." This is certainly not a *free school* according to our modern notions. In 1713 the commutation was increased to three shillings and sixpence. In 1731, a writing school was voted for the south end.

The following rules and orders, concerning the original Town School of Dorchester were drawn up by the wardens of the school, and confirmed by the major part of the inhabitants in 1645, when the school was first opened:—

RULES FOR THE ORDERING OF THE TOWN SCHOOL OF DORCHESTER IN 1645.

"*First.* It is ordered that three able and sufficient men of the plantation shall be chosen to be wardens or overseers of the school, who shall have the charge, oversight and ordering thereof, and of all things concerning the same in such manner as is hereafter expressed, and shall continue in their office and place for term of their lives respectively, unless by reason of any of them removing his habitation out of the town, or for any other weighty reason, the inhabitants shall see cause to elect and choose others in their room, in which cases and upon the death of any of the same wardens, the inhabitants shall make a new election and choice of others. And Mr. Haward, Deacon Wiswall, Mr. Atherton are elected to be the first wardens or overseers.

"*Secondly.* The said wardens shall have full power to dispose of the school stock, whether the same be in land or otherwise, both such as is already in being and such as may by any good means hereafter be added; and shall collect and receive the rents, issues and profits arising and growing of and from the said stock. And the said rents, issues and profits shall employ and lay out only for the best behoof and advantage of the said school, and the furtherance of learning thereby, and shall give a faithful and true account of their receipts and disbursements so often as they shall be thereunto required by the inhabitants or the major part of them.

Thirdly. The said wardens shall take care and do their utmost and best endeavor that the said school may from time to time be supplied with an able and sufficient schoolmaster who nevertheless is not to be admitted into the place of schoolmaster without the general consent of the inhabitants or the major part of them.

Fourthly. So often as the said school shall be supplied with a schoolmaster so provided and admitted as aforesaid, the wardens shall from time to time pay or cause to be paid unto the said schoolmaster such wages out of the rents, issues and profits of the school stock as shall of right come due to be paid.

Fifthly. The said wardens shall from time to time see that the school-house be kept in good and sufficient repair, the charges of which reparation shall be defrayed and paid out of such rents, issues and profits of that school stock if there be sufficient, or else of such rents as shall arise and grow in the time of the vacancy of the schoolmaster if there be any such—and in defect of such vacancy the wardens shall repair to the 7 [select] men of the town for the time being, who shall have power to tax the town with such sum or sums as shall be requested for the repairing of the school-house as aforesaid.

Sixthly. The said wardens shall take care that every year at or before the end of the 9th month there be brought to the school-house twelve sufficient cart or wain loads of wood for fuel, to be for the use of the schoolmaster and the scholars in winter, the cost and charge of which said wood to be borne by the scholars for the time being who shall be taxed for the purpose at the discretion of the said wardens.

Lastly. The said wardens shall take care that the schoolmaster for the time being do faithfully perform his duty in his place, as a schoolmaster ought to do, as well in other things as in these which are hereafter expressed, viz:—

1st. That the schoolmaster shall diligently attend his school, and do his utmost endeavor for benefiting his scholars according to his best discretion, without unnecessarily absenting himself to the prejudice of his scholars and hindering their learning.

2dly. That from the beginning of the first month until the end of the seventh, he shall every day begin to teach at seven of the clock in the morning and dismiss his scholars at five in the afternoon. And for the other five months, that

is, from the beginning of the eighth month until the end of the twelfth month he shall every day begin at eight of the clock in the morning, and [end] at four in the afternoon.

3dly. Every day in the year the usual time of dismissing at noon shall be at eleven, and to begin again at one, except that

4thly. Every second day in the week he shall call his scholars together between twelve and one of the clock to examine them what they have learned on the sabbath day preceding, at which time also he shall take notice of any misdemeanor or outrage that any of his scholars shall have committed on the sabbath, to the end that at some convenient time due admonition and correction may be administered by him according as the nature and quality of the offense shall require, at which said examination any of the elders or other inhabitants that please may be present, to behold his religious care herein, and to give their countenance and approbation of the same.

5thly. He shall equally and impartially receive and instruct such as shall be sent and committed to him for that end, whether their parents be poor or rich, not refusing any who have right and interest in the school.

6thly. Such as shall be committed to him he shall diligently instruct, as they shall be able to learn, both in humane learning and good literature, and likewise in point of good manners and dutiful behavior towards all, especially their superiors as they shall have occasion to be in their presence, whether by meeting them in the street or otherwise.

7thly. Every day of the week at two of the clock in the afternoon, he shall catechise his scholars in the principles of Christian religion, either in some catechism which the wardens shall provide and present, or in defect thereof in some other.

8thly. And because all man's endeavors without the blessing of God must needs be fruitless and unsuccessful, therefore it is to be a chief part of the schoolmaster's religious care to commend his scholars and his labors amongst them unto God by prayer morning and evening, taking care that his scholars do reverently attend during the same.

9thly. And because the rod of correction is an ordinance of God necessary sometimes to be dispensed unto children, but such as may easily be abused by overmuch severity and rigor on the one hand, or by overmuch indulgence and lenity on the other, it is therefore ordered and agreed that the schoolmaster for the time being shall have full power to minister correction to all or any of his scholars without respect of persons, according to the nature and quality of the offense shall require; whereto all his scholars must be duly subject; and no parent or other of the inhabitants shall hinder or go about to hinder the master therein: nevertheless if any parent or other shall think there is just cause of complaint against the master for too much severity such shall have liberty friendly and lovingly to expostulate with the master about the same; and if they shall not attain to satisfaction, the matter is then to be referred to the wardens, who shall impartially judge betwixt the master and such complainants. And if it shall appear to them that any parent shall make causeless complaint against the master in this behalf, and shall persist in and continue so doing, in such case the wardens shall have power to discharge the master of the care and charge of the children of such parents. But if the thing complained of be true, and that the master have indeed been guilty of ministering excessive correction, and shall appear to them to continue therein, notwithstanding that they have advised him otherwise, in such case, as also in the case of too much lenity or any other great neglect of duty in his case persisted in, it shall be in the power of the wardens to call the inhabitants together to consider whether it were not meet to discharge the master of his place, that so some other more desirable may be provided. And because it is difficult, if not impossible, to give particular rules that shall reach all cases which may fall out, therefore, for a conclusion, it is ordered and agreed in general, that, where particular rules are wanting, there it shall be a part of the office and duty of the wardens to order and dispose of all things that concern the school, in such sort as in their wisdom and discretion they shall judge most conducible for the glory of God and the training up of the children of the town in religion, learning, and civility:—And these orders to be continued till the major part of the town shall see cause to alter any part thereof."

Mr. Trask, in his chapter on "Schools," makes the following remarks on the school-houses, school-books, and teachers of Dorchester:—

In 1694, the town, after voting in 1674 to repair the school-house by clabording or shingling the roofe, and fitting up with seats, and a lock and key, voted to erect near the meeting-house a new building 20 feet long and 19 feet wide, with a chamber floor, one pair of stairs, and a chimney. Dr. Harris says—"the smooth face of a large rock made the principal part of the north end and formed the back of the fireplace." Of a school-house standing in 1759, an old scholar says—"The school-room was nearly square. On three sides of the house a seat was attached, for the boys to sit on, in front of which, at a proper distance, was the place to write and lay their books while studying. This flat desk or form was made of sufficient width to accommodate them with another range of seats on the inside, so that the boys would write and study facing each other. There was a shelf, also, running round the house on three sides, on which the books were laid when not in use. The boys of the inner seat, coming to the school, through mud and snow, as they often did, by stepping on their own seat to the place on which they wrote, had access to their books on the shelves.

One of the earliest books used in our schools was the old fashioned, blue-covered, New England Primer, so well known to us, which has passed through such a variety of editions—the undisputed standard of orthodoxy in the days of our fathers. There was another book, however, which may have been, to some extent, its antecedent. A single leaf of coarse paper, with the alphabet and Lord's prayer printed on it, was fastened firmly, with glue, or some other similar substance, on a thin piece of board, and covered over with horn, to keep it from soiling. A book thus manufactured was called a "horn-book," and was "used for teaching children their letters." Not unlikely it may have had priority to the primer in the Dorchester dame schools. It was a requisite of admission into the grammar school, that the child should be able to read correctly in the primer. Previously to 1665, Richard Mather's catechism * was in use. In that year, the town voted to distribute a "new impression" of the book among the families in town. In relation to the books and classes in the old school, near Meeting-house Hill, a century ago, Dea. Humphreys states that there were three classifications. The lowest was called "the Psalter class," next "the Testament class," then "the Bible class." The latter were required to read about two chapters at the commencement and close of the school, spell words contained in those chapters, and write and cypher. From the year 1759 to 1767, when he left the school, he saw "no other English books" there, he says, except those that have been mentioned, "till about the last two years, we had Dilworth's spelling-book and Hodder's arithmetic."

Of the seventy teachers whose names have been found connected with the Dorchester schools, during the time above mentioned—nearly a century and three quarters—fifty-three, or three-fourths of the whole number, graduated at Harvard College. Another obtained his education at that College, but did not receive a degree, though he subsequently fulfilled, faithfully, the duties of a minister, both in a clerical and in a political capacity. Of the remaining seventeen in the list, two graduated at Cambridge University, in England, two at Brown University, R. I., and one at Dartmouth College. Thirty-one of these school-masters, or nearly one half, were ordained ministers, the most of them subsequent to their teaching school.

---

* The following is the title-page of a copy of this rare book in the possession of J. W. Thornton, Esq., Boston. Mass.

A | CATECHISME | or, | The Grounds and Princi | ples of Christian Religion, set | forth by way of Question | and Answer. | Wherein the summe of the Doctrine of | Religion is comprised, familiarly opened, | and clearly confirmed from the | Holy Scriptures. | By RICHARD MATHER, Teacher to the | Church at Dorchester in New England.

Hold fast the form of sound words which thou hast heard of me | in faith and love, which is in Christ Jesus. 2 Tim. 1. 13.

When for the time ye ought to be Teachers, ye have need that | one teach you again the first principles of the Oracles of God, and are become such as have need of Milke, and not of strong meat. Heb. 5, 12.

London. | Printed for *John Rothwell*, and are to be sold at | his shop at the sign of the Sunne and Foun | taine in *Paul's* Church yard neer the little | North-gate. 1650.

STATE OF EDUCATION IN NORTH CAROLINA, PRIOR TO 1800.

FROM THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF CHARLES CALDWELL, M. D.

CHARLES CALDWELL, M. D., founder of the Medical School at Louisville, Kentucky, and an able promoter of improvements in Physical Education, was born in Orange, now Caswell County, North Carolina, near the southern border of Virginia, on the 14th of May, 1772. His father and mother were both natives of Ireland, and emigrated first to Newark, Delaware, and subsequently to the western frontier of North Carolina. Of his own education, and incidentally, of the facilities of school instruction in North Carolina in his childhood and youth, he has given an account in his Autobiography, which was published by Lippincott & Co., in 1855, soon after his death, which occurred in Louisville, Kentucky, on the 9th of July, 1853.

I was destined from my childhood, being the youngest and the pet of the family, for a liberal education. The cause of this destination I am not prepared very positively to state. It could not have been the influence of the custom or fashion of the place in which I was born. On no other boy, within my knowledge, was such an education designed to be bestowed. I alone, within the whole vicinity, was to be a scholar.

My father's family mansion was neither very large nor very commodious. Every room in it was appropriated to some indispensable domestic purpose. I had, therefore, no apartment in which to pursue my studies alone and uninterrupted. And that, to me, was a serious grievance. For, though many persons profess to study closely and without annoyance, in the midst of noise and bustle, such is not the case with myself. I have never been able to apply my mind to any investigation or form of thought, with either intensity, profit, or satisfaction, much less with pleasure, except in silence, at least, if not also in solitude.

To remedy this evil, when but a boy, I spent an entire school vacation term, engaged, as just mentioned, in the erection of a small but neat log cabin, about twenty paces distant from the family dwelling-house. True, I did not erect the entire building by my own labor. But I superintended and directed the whole, and performed in person no inconsiderable portion of the work. I shall never forget how severely I blistered my hands by the helve of the axe, in felling and hewing small and straight white-oak trees, to make logs for my study. But notwithstanding the uneasiness produced by the blisters, their stiffening

my fingers, so as almost to unfit me for using my pen, and the unsightly appearance they communicated to my hands, I steadily persevered in my enterprise, until the fabric was completed.

By the close of the vacation, my homely domicil, just sufficiently capacious to hold a small bed and table, and a few plain rush-bottom chairs, was finished. And in that place of noiseless retirement did I spend many a long and lonely night, from dark till near daylight, engaged in some form of mental exercise, when I was supposed by the family to be reposing on my pillow.

Such, at this early period of my life, was my ardor in quest of knowledge and letters, my determination to attain them, and, if possible, to excel in them. And, had I not thus labored, I could never have succeeded in any reputable degree in the accomplishment of my purpose. For this assertion I could render several plain and substantial reasons, one of which is as follows: My teachers were miserably deficient in qualifications and means to instruct, as well as in industry and conscientiousness to that effect. I was compelled, therefore, to depend, in a great measure, on my own resources. This, however, is a general truth, involving others no less than myself. Every person, whatever may be his opportunities, must be self-taught, else he is not thoroughly taught at all.

So rude and letterless, and so lamentably destitute of the means and opportunities for education was the tract of country in which I was born, that notwithstanding all the exertions my father and a few of his most enterprising neighbors could make, no school for me could be procured, until I had completed a portion (more, I think, than the half) of my ninth year. And to it I was obliged to walk a distance of more than three miles, along a slight and devious foot or cow-path, through a deep and tangled forest, infested by wolves, wild cats, snakes, and other animals, whose relation to man was the reverse of friendliness. But though I occasionally saw those lawless rovers of the forest, they neither injured nor annoyed me, nor excited in me the least apprehension of danger; or, if I felt a little dread of any of them, it was of rattlesnakes, vipers, and moccasins or yellow-heads, too near to some of which I at times, incidentally trod, with unprotected feet—in plainer and more significant language—barefooted. For, except during the frosts of winter, and I was dressed for some particular purpose, my foot was never encumbered by a shoe; and I need hardly add, that when equipped in shoes, those appurtenances were, in material and structure, sufficiently homely.

During the period of my life which I am now describing (and to myself it was one of peculiar importance, in its relation as well to the development and constitution of my body as to the habits of my mind,) the following (Sunday excepted) were my daily movements:—

After an early country breakfast, I set out for school, carrying with me, for my dinner, a piece of Indian-corn bread and a bottle of milk fresh from the cow. This was provision made for my body; nor was I forgetful of a like provision for my mind. As tributary to that purpose, I also carried along with me my book or books, and in due time my slate and pencil, which I brought home with me in the evening as my companions and instructors until bedtime, before which period I rarely dismissed them. Under these circumstances, I was left free to pursue my own course without being disturbed by requests to take any concern in the business of the household; an indulgence which contributed much to my gratification, and not a little to my benefit.

In the course of my first year at school, I became decidedly the best speller and reader in the institution; though several of my school-fellows were much older than I was, and had been two and three years under tuition. Yet, when I first entered school, a bare knowledge of the alphabet constituted my only attainment in letters. Within the year, I also acquired such command of my pen as to write a plain, bold, and ready school-boy hand (though I have never written an elegant one,) and so far mastered figures as to pass with credit, and comparative *éclat* through the elementary processes of arithmetic, and to become expert in the solution of questions in the single and double rules of three, as well as in the form of calculation called practice; and, in the crude and almost letterless community in which I resided, such attainments were regarded as reputable scholarship.

In less than another year I learned, of my own accord, and in my own way, to compose letters, addressed to imaginary correspondents (for I had no real ones,) of which, however, I now regret that I never preserved, or even thought of preserving, a single composition. Added to my attainment in the art of letter-writing, I had also within the same period (long before the end of the second year) acquired all the remaining technical school-knowledge (and he possessed no other sort) which my teacher could impart to me.

Before the close of my second scholastic year, my father removed his residence and family from Caswell to that portion of Mecklenburg which now forms Cabarrus County, not far from the southern border of North Carolina. In that tract of country, which was not quite as unenlightened and barren in opportunities and means of education as that which he had left, he settled for life, and commenced the cultivation and improvement of a new and very valuable body of land.

Here I again entered a common English school, and, in five or six months, had the good or bad fortune, according as the case may be considered and construed, to be accounted a better scholar than my teacher. This fact, however, when taken in the abstract, and strictly interpreted, spoke but moderately in behalf of my scholarship. The standard by which my attainments were measured was far from being a lofty one. In plain terms, my teacher was again an illiterate, coarse, and conceited empty head; but very little if at all superior to the preceding one, of whom I have already spoken. I ought rather to pronounce him inferior; his intellect being in no respect better, and his temper much worse. He often severely and vulgarly rebuked boys, and inflicted on them at times corporal punishment, on account of their deficiency in lessons and tasks, which he had shown himself to be unable effectually to expound to them.

Such were the two individuals; both of them dolts by nature, and disgracefully letterless and uninformed, to whose superintendence my English school education was intrusted. And here that course of education terminated. The entire period of it extended but little beyond two years; perhaps to two and a quarter.

Early in my twelfth year I commenced the study of the ancient languages. Here again I led, in part, the life of a forester. The school-house, to which I daily repaired, was a log cabin (the logs of it unhewn) situated in a densely wooded plain, upward of two miles distant from my father's dwelling. And my Dominie (so every teacher of Greek and Latin was then denominated) was,

in some respects, of a piece with the building in which he presided. Though not cast in exactly the same mold, he was as odd and *outré* as Dominie Sampson. Yet was he a creature of great moral worth, being as single-minded, pure, and upright, as he was eccentric and unique; and he had an excellent intellect. To me he was extremely kind and attentive, took boundless pains in my instruction, and, in no great length of time, taught me as much of Latin and Greek, English composition, and the art of speaking (alias declamation,) as he knew himself. In "speaking," he taught me, or I acquired myself, much more; for, in that accomplishment, he was lamentably deficient. Nature had irrevocably forbidden him to be an orator. His lips were so thin and skinny, tight-drawn, yet puckered over a set of long projecting teeth (making his mouth resemble that of a sucker,) that he could never utter a full masculine sound. In his base tones he sputtered, and squeaked in his tenor; and the treble chord he could not reach at all. His person resembled a living mummy. It was little else than a framework of bone, tendon, and membrane, covered by a dingy skin, so tensely fitted to it as to prevent wrinkles His entire figure was unmarked by the swell and rounding of a single muscle. Still, I say, he was clever, in the highest and strongest meaning of the term. Besides instructing me much better than any other teacher had done, he gave me whole tomes of excellent advice, which was highly serviceable to me in after years; and which even now, in the winter of my life, I remember with a flush of gratitude and pleasure.

Soon after I left his school he left it also, and repaired to Princeton (in New Jersey) to fit himself, by higher and ampler attainments in college-learning, for the study of divinity. His sound scholarship and general merit being there discovered, he received soon after his graduation, as Bachelor of Arts, the appointment of first tutor in that ancient and respectable institution. His performance of the duties of the responsible station to which, though unasked for, he was thus promoted, was all that could be desired—faithful, conscientious, and able. But his tenure of it was brief. About nine months from the time of his appointment, the united toils of teaching and professional study struck him down, in a violent fever, accompanied by an inflammation of the brain, which, in less than a week, proved fatal to him.

Many years afterwards, I visited the cemetery where the relics of my early benefactor were deposited, and, not without some difficulty, found his lonely and neglected grave, honored only by its moldering contents. Indignant at the disrespect with which it had been treated, I had the wild weeds that grew around it plucked up, a covering of fresher sods laid over it, and a more respectable head and foot-stone erected, to mark more lastingly the consecrated spot. I next, with my own hands, placed in the earth around it a few flower-bearing plants, and then gazing on it for a moment, not perhaps without a moistened eye, bade it a feeling and final farewell. Poor Harris! Grow on and around his grave what may, neither the nettle nor the thorn, the brier nor the thistle, can derive from his clay congenial nourishment. He was one of the purest impersonations I have ever known of what is most valuable and attractive in mildness and amenity, unsophisticated kindness and good-nature.

I entered next an institution called an academy, in which, together with the ancient languages, were taught a few branches of science to which I was a stranger. Much to my regret, however, I found that also to be but a meager con-

cern. The teachers of it, though neither actually weak nor ignorant, were equally remote from being, in any measure, powerfully gifted, or extensively informed. But the worst feature of their case was, that they were destitute alike of skill and faithfulness in the art of teaching. But, far from having on me the slightest influence, through a disposition on my part to follow their example of idleness and neglect, that example but rendered me the more industrious and energetic; for now I clearly perceived that, for the accomplishment of my education, I must depend almost entirely on my own resources. To this view of the subject I adapted my measures, with all the assiduity, judgment, and firmness I could bring to the enterprise. And, by the close of my fourteenth year, I had made myself master of all the school and academical learning that could be furnished by the institutions of the region in which I resided. Perhaps I might amplify my representation of the case, and say that I now possessed as much attainment of the kind referred to as could be imparted to me at any institution then in the State of North Carolina; for, as yet, the University of that State had not been founded.

With this, I close the account of my literary pupilage in the South, but not of my literary education. That process I still continued, with unabated ardor, though I changed materially the mode of conducting it; a measure which formed an epoch in the history of my life.

I was now virtually alone in the world, having followed both my parents to the grave, and to no control, except theirs, had I ever submitted; nor from any other source could I deign to take counsel. Too young, as well as, in my own opinion, too superficially educated to enter on the study of a learned profession, and not having at immediate command a sufficient amount of funds to enable me to repair to one of the distinguished northern colleges for the completion of my elementary education, I was induced, by a complimentary invitation, and the prospect of a liberal income, to place myself at the head of a large and flourishing grammar school, situated in a remote and wealthy section of the state. That institution had at all times previously been under the direction of gentlemen somewhat advanced in years, and of acknowledged scholarship; and it contained, at the time of my appointment to it, several pupils from five to ten years older than myself.

The gentleman who had preceded me in the direction of the school acted toward me with a degree of kindness and liberality which was highly honorable to him, and which I have never ceased to remember with gratitude.

In the government of the institution I found no difficulty. Discarding entirely the levity of youth, in which I had never but very moderately indulged, and assuming a deportment sufficiently authoritative, mingled with affability and courtesy of manner, I commanded, from the first act of my official duties, the entire respect and deference of my pupils. The elder and more intelligent of them conformed to order and good government from a threefold motive—the decorum and propriety of the measure, in a social and gentlemanly point of view—a conviction that submission to rightful authority is a moral duty, which can not be violated without disrepute among the enlightened and the virtuous—and a sentiment of self-interest; for they had the sagacity very soon to perceive my ability to bestow on them lasting benefits, and my resolution to do so, provided they should deserve them.

A given portion of time excepted, which, for the benefit of the school, I deemed it my duty to devote to social intercourse, my intellectual labors be-

in some respects, of a piece with the building in which he presided. Though not cast in exactly the same mold, he was as odd and *outré* as Dominie Sampson. Yet was he a creature of great moral worth, being as single-minded, pure, and upright, as he was eccentric and unique; and he had an excellent intellect. To me he was extremely kind and attentive, took boundless pains in my instruction, and, in no great length of time, taught me as much of Latin and Greek, English composition, and the art of speaking (alias declamation,) as he knew himself. In "speaking," he taught me, or I acquired myself, much more; for, in that accomplishment, he was lamentably deficient. Nature had irrevocably forbidden him to be an orator. His lips were so thin and skinny, tight-drawn, yet puckered over a set of long projecting teeth (making his mouth resemble that of a sucker,) that he could never utter a full masculine sound. In his base tones he sputtered, and squeaked in his tenor; and the treble chord he could not reach at all. His person resembled a living mummy. It was little else than a framework of bone, tendon, and membrane, covered by a dingy skin, so tensely fitted to it as to prevent wrinkles His entire figure was unmarked by the swell and rounding of a single muscle. Still, I say, he was clever, in the highest and strongest meaning of the term. Besides instructing me much better than any other teacher had done, he gave me whole tomes of excellent advice, which was highly serviceable to me in after years; and which even now, in the winter of my life, I remember with a flush of gratitude and pleasure.

Soon after I left his school he left it also, and repaired to Princeton (in New Jersey) to fit himself, by higher and ampler attainments in college-learning, for the study of divinity. His sound scholarship and general merit being there discovered, he received soon after his graduation, as Bachelor of Arts, the appointment of first tutor in that ancient and respectable institution. His performance of the duties of the responsible station to which, though unasked for, he was thus promoted, was all that could be desired—faithful, conscientious, and able. But his tenure of it was brief. About nine months from the time of his appointment, the united toils of teaching and professional study struck him down, in a violent fever, accompanied by an inflammation of the brain, which, in less than a week, proved fatal to him.

Many years afterwards, I visited the cemetery where the relics of my early benefactor were deposited, and, not without some difficulty, found his lonely and neglected grave, honored only by its moldering contents. Indignant at the disrespect with which it had been treated, I had the wild weeds that grew around it plucked up, a covering of fresher sods laid over it, and a more respectable head and foot-stone erected, to mark more lastingly the consecrated spot. I next, with my own hands, placed in the earth around it a few flower-bearing plants, and then gazing on it for a moment, not perhaps without a moistened eye, bade it a feeling and final farewell. Poor Harris! Grow on and around his grave what may, neither the nettle nor the thorn, the brier nor the thistle, can derive from his clay congenial nourishment. He was one of the purest impersonations I have ever known of what is most valuable and attractive in mildness and amenity, unsophisticated kindness and good-nature.

I entered next an institution called an academy, in which, together with the ancient languages, were taught a few branches of science to which I was a stranger. Much to my regret, however, I found that also to be but a meager con-

cern. The teachers of it, though neither actually weak nor ignorant, were equally remote from being, in any measure, powerfully gifted, or extensively informed. But the worst feature of their case was, that they were destitute alike of skill and faithfulness in the art of teaching. But, far from having on me the slightest influence, through a disposition on my part to follow their example of idleness and neglect, that example but rendered me the more industrious and energetic; for now I clearly perceived that, for the accomplishment of my education, I must depend almost entirely on my own resources. To this view of the subject I adapted my measures, with all the assiduity, judgment, and firmness I could bring to the enterprise. And, by the close of my fourteenth year, I had made myself master of all the school and academical learning that could be furnished by the institutions of the region in which I resided. Perhaps I might amplify my representation of the case, and say that I now possessed as much attainment of the kind referred to as could be imparted to me at any institution then in the State of North Carolina; for, as yet, the University of that State had not been founded.

With this, I close the account of my literary pupilage in the South, but not of my literary education. That process I still continued, with unabated ardor, though I changed materially the mode of conducting it; a measure which formed an epoch in the history of my life.

I was now virtually alone in the world, having followed both my parents to the grave, and to no control, except theirs, had I ever submitted; nor from any other source could I deign to take counsel. Too young, as well as, in my own opinion, too superficially educated to enter on the study of a learned profession, and not having at immediate command a sufficient amount of funds to enable me to repair to one of the distinguished northern colleges for the completion of my elementary education, I was induced, by a complimentary invitation, and the prospect of a liberal income, to place myself at the head of a large and flourishing grammar school, situated in a remote and wealthy section of the state. That institution had at all times previously been under the direction of gentlemen somewhat advanced in years, and of acknowledged scholarship; and it contained, at the time of my appointment to it, several pupils from five to ten years older than myself.

The gentleman who had preceded me in the direction of the school acted toward me with a degree of kindness and liberality which was highly honorable to him, and which I have never ceased to remember with gratitude.

In the government of the institution I found no difficulty. Discarding entirely the levity of youth, in which I had never but very moderately indulged, and assuming a deportment sufficiently authoritative, mingled with affability and courtesy of manner, I commanded, from the first act of my official duties, the entire respect and deference of my pupils. The elder and more intelligent of them conformed to order and good government from a threefold motive—the decorum and propriety of the measure, in a social and gentlemanly point of view—a conviction that submission to rightful authority is a moral duty, which can not be violated without disrepute among the enlightened and the virtuous—and a sentiment of self-interest; for they had the sagacity very soon to perceive my ability to bestow on them lasting benefits, and my resolution to do so, provided they should deserve them.

A given portion of time excepted, which, for the benefit of the school, I deemed it my duty to devote to social intercourse, my intellectual labors be-

came now more incessant and intense than they had been at any previous period of my life.

The exercises of instructing, directing, and governing during the day, were comparatively but amusements. My real labors were performed by candle-light.

That I might manifest a proud and triumphant preparation and capability to communicate instruction with readiness and ease in all the branches belonging to my departments, and establish a high reputation to that effect, I ran over, every night, before retiring to my pillow, the matters of recitation, especially those of the higher orders, that were to come before me on the following day. Or, if I had any number of evening engagements ahead, which were to be of some duration, I examined in one night the subjects of recitation for the corresponding number of succeeding days. For my resolution was settled, never, if able by any possible exertion to prevent it, to be found unprepared for my duty in the slightest particular.

Owing to these habits of unfailing punctuality and industry, accompanied by corresponding energy and perseverance, this was one of the most instructive periods of my life. It gave me more exalted and correct ideas of precision and accuracy in intellectual action, than one person in ten thousand entertains, or than I had previously entertained—though I had always prized and endeavored to a certain extent to practice them. It also taught me experimentally the great importance and value of strict attention, as the source of accuracy. Nor did it fail to confirm my belief of the truth, and elevate my opinion of the usefulness, of Dr. Priestley's favorite and oft-repeated motto: "Qui docet, discit:" he who teaches others, instructs himself.

During this period I certainly learned more, I have reason to believe *much* more, than any pupil under my tuition. But whether I actually learned a greater amount or not, what I did learn, I certainly learned much more thoroughly and accurately than any of my pupils—because I was positively and on principle, resolved to do so. And resolution, properly directed and sufficiently persevered in, can and does accomplish every thing within the scope of human power.

From this institution, which was called the Snow Creek Seminary, from being situated on a stream of that name, not far from the foot of the Bushy Mountains, in North Carolina, I was invited by a body of gentlemen of standing and influence, to engage in the establishment of a school, of a similar character, about fifty miles distant, in a still wealthier and more cultivated tract of country. This invitation was flattering to me, on account of the high and growing opinion of my ability and qualifications which it manifested, and I promptly accepted it. To become the founder and father of a literary institution, about my eighteenth year, was deemed by me an achievement not unworthy of my ambition, though already sufficiently high and enthusiastic. I accordingly embarked in the enterprise, without delay or hesitation, planned it with my best judgment and skill, and urged the practical measures of it with all the ardor and energy of my nature.

At the head of the Centre Institute I continued for two years, during which time my studies were of a more miscellaneous character, than they had been at any previous period. My reading was general—almost exclusively, however, of a substantial and instructive nature, very little of it being either calculated or designed for purposes of amusement. Though it did not exclude works of

science, technically so denominated, it consisted chiefly of history in its several departments; biography, travels, public speeches by distinguished orators, sermons included, ably written letters, and poetry. Though novels, romances, and other works of moral fiction, were not entirely neglected by me, they were read only in company, attended by comments and illustrative remarks, with a view to afford by them agreeable entertainment, and such instruction as they might be calculated to impart, and never during my hours of solitude and labor in my study. Nor did I fail to devote some portion of my time to a study in which, from my boyhood, I have peculiarly delighted—that of the philosophy or theology of nature, under a strict comparison of it with the theology of revelation, two branches of knowledge usually called "natural and revealed religion." I need hardly observe, that such exercises contributed not a little to expand and enrich, mature and strengthen my mind, and thus prepare it the more effectually for the study of whatever professional calling I might subsequently adopt. For it is a mockery to call divinity, law, and medicine "learned professions," unless those who profess and pursue them, are *learned men*. And I blush for the professional degradation of my country, when I feel myself compelled to add, that such is far from being the case in the United States, under our present disgraceful neglect of letters.

At that era of my life I also commenced, in a more special and pointed manner, the study of human nature; not by the perusal of printed books, but of the Book of Nature. I mean, by observation on people around me. My first object was, to attain such a knowledge of human nature as might qualify me, in all cases, to hold intercourse with individuals, and society at large, in such a way, and on such terms, as might be most becoming, safe, and useful, as well toward others, as in relation to myself. Nor did I confine my studies to the acquisition of the knowledge of man, on a very limited scale. I extended them into that branch of natural history, denominated Anthropology, embracing the whole history and philosophy of man.

Having never designed to officiate as an instructor of youth for more than a few years, the time had now arrived when it was incumbent on me to make choice of a profession for life. I had been educated expressly for the Presbyterian pulpit—my family having been, through many generations, strict adherents to the Presbyterian sect, and most of them very sternly wedded to its distinctive tenets, principles of government, and form of worship. But, very early in life, and for sundry reasons satisfactory to myself, I had firmly resolved, and made my resolution known to those most deeply interested in it, not to devote myself to that calling; but after much vacillation, out of deference to my father's objections to the legal and military professions, I was induced to relinquish that intention also, and to select for my destiny the profession of medicine.

Although not strictly within the scope of this article, we add a few extracts relating to his medical studies.

In August, 1792, young Caldwell repaired to Philadelphia, to pursue his studies under the auspices of the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania. He commenced with a determination to succeed and distinguish himself in them, to which he sternly and diligently adhered. Soon after the close of the first

course of lectures, he submitted to Dr. Rush a sketch of his plan of future study as follows:—

So many hours for reading medical and scientific works—so many for works on polite literature and history—so much time to be devoted to the examination and study of the cases of the sick in the Pennsylvania Hospital—so much to various sorts of composition—and so much to exercise, eating, and sleeping. In this scheme of engagement was included an attendance on two courses of lectures, to be delivered during the summer.

Having thrown his eye over this plan, he said to me, in a sprightly tone, and with a pleasant look: "Your plan is objectionable, I think, in two points. You have allotted to yourself no time for amusement, and too little, I fear, for exercise, eating, and sleeping."

"My amusement," I replied, "will consist in my dalliance with polite literature, especially with poetry, and the enjoyment of botanical excursions; and seven hours (the space I had allotted) are amply sufficient for exercise and repose. I rarely sleep more than four hours, or, at farthest, four and a half out of twenty-four, which will leave me the command of two and a half, one for my meals, and one and a half for exercise. And that is as large a portion of time as a young man, engaged in the study of a profession and in the general cultivation of his mind, and who means to deserve the name of a student, can devote to those purposes. Besides, sir, my resolves on this subject are not so positive as to be either immutable or inflexible. An occasional and slight departure from them, for the sake of relaxation, should circumstances require it, will be quite admissible."

"With these provisos," said the doctor, "your scheme is admirable. I can not suggest to it any amendment. Had I prescribed a plan of study to you myself, it would have been much less strict and laborious. Let that framed by yourself be executed with judgment, energy, and perseverance, and, with your talents, there is no honor in your profession to which you may not confidently aspire, and ultimately attain. But your health must be cared for. And remember, that in relation to that, and in every thing else connected with your studies, you may command my services." And thus ended an interview which had been highly gratifying to me, and proved afterward useful.

Dr. Caldwell in 1794 received his degree of M. D., under circumstances (an open quarrel with Dr. Rush,) which are still remembered among the traditions of the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania. In 1815 Dr. Caldwell became "Professor of Geology and the Philosophy of Natural History" in the Faculty of Physical Sciences, in the University. In August, 1819, he was appointed to the chair of "Institutes of Medicine and Clinical Practice" in Transylvania University, in Lexington, Kentucky. He was afterwards the organizer of the Medical Department or School of that University, which became one of the largest and most lucrative to the professors in the United States.

GENERAL MARION ON FREE SCHOOLS, IN 1795.

The following conversation of General Marion, just before his death in 1795, with General Horry, and the views of the former on popular ignorance in South Carolina and the value of Free Schools, are reported in the Life of Marion by Gen. Horry and Weems.

On the night of the last visit I ever made him, observing that the clock was going for ten, I asked him if it were not near his hour of rest.

"Oh no," said he, "we must not talk of bed yet. It is but seldom, you know, that we meet. And as this may be our *last*, let us take all we can of it in chat. What do you think of the *times?*"

"O glorious times," said I.

"Yes, thank God!" replied he. "They are glorious times indeed; and fully equal to all that we had in hope, when we drew our swords for independence. But I am afraid they won't last long."

I asked him why he thought so.

"Oh! knowledge, sir," said he, "is wanting! knowledge is wanting! Israel of old, you know, was *destroyed for lack of knowledge;* and all nations, all individuals, have come to naught from the same cause."

I told him I thought we were too happy to change so soon.

"Pshaw!" replied he, "that is nothing to the purpose. Happiness signifies nothing, if it be *not known, and properly valued.* Satan, we are told, was once an angel of light, but for want of duly considering his glorious state, he rebelled and lost all. And how many hundreds of young Carolinians have we not known, whose fathers left them all the means of happiness; elegant estates, handsome wives, and, in short, every blessing that the most luxurious could desire? Yet they could not rest, until by *drinking* and *gambling*, they had fooled away their fortunes, parted from their wives, and rendered themselves the *veriest beggars* and *blackguards* on earth.

"Now, why was all this but *for lack of knowledge?* For had those silly ones but known the evils of poverty, what a vile thing it was to wear a dirty shirt, a long beard, and a ragged coat; to go without a dinner, or to spunge for it among growling relations; or to be bespattered, or run over in the streets, by the sons of those who were once their fathers' overseers; I say, had those poor boobies, in the days of their prosperity, known these things as they *now do*, would they have squandered away the precious means of independence and pleasure, and have brought themselves to all this shame and sorrow? No, never, never, never!

"And so it is, most exactly, with *nations.* If those that are *free* and *happy*, did but *know* their blessings, do you think they would ever exchange them for slavery? If the Carthagenians, for example, in the days of their freedom and self-government, when they obeyed no laws but of their own making; paid no taxes, but for their own benefit; and, free as air, pursued their own interest as they liked; I say, if that once glorious and happy people had known their blessings, would they have sacrificed them all, by their *accursed factions*, to the Romans, to be ruled, they and their children, with a rod of iron; to be burdened like beasts, and crucified like malefactors?"

"No, surely they would not."

"Well, now to bring this home to ourselves. We fought for self-government; and God hath pleased to give us one, better calculated perhaps to protect our *rights*, to foster our *virtues*, to call forth our energies, and to advance our condition nearer to perfection and happiness, than any government that was ever framed under the sun.

"But what signifies even this government, divine as it is, if it be not known and prized as it deserves?"

I asked him how he thought this was best to be done.

"Why, certainly," replied he, "by *free schools*."

I shook my head.

He observed it, and asked me what I meant by that.

I told him I was afraid the legislature would look to their popularity, and dread the expense.

He exclaimed, "God preserve our legislatmre from such '*penny wit and pound foolishness!*' What! sir, keep a *nation* in ignorance, rather than vote a little of their own money for education! Only let such politicians remember, what poor Carolina has already lost through her *ignorance*. What was it that brought the British, last war, to Carolina, but her *lack of knowledge?* Had the people been enlightened, they would have been *united;* and had they been united, they never would have been attacked a second time by the British. For after that drubbing they got from us at Fort Moultrie, in 1776, they would as soon have attacked the devil as have attacked Carolina again, had they not heard that they were '*a house divided against itself;*' or in other words had amongst us a great number of TORIES; men, who, through mere ignorance, were disaffected to the cause of liberty. and ready to join the British against their own countrymen. Thus, ignorance begat toryism, and toryism begat losses in Carolina, of which few have any idea."

General Marion estimated the pecuniary losses in men, slaves, and property of South Carolina by the war protracted by the ignorance of the people, at $15,000,000, and referred to New England as an example of the political wisdom of public instruction.

"From Britain, their fathers had fled to America for religion's sake. Religion had taught them that God created men to be *happy*; that to be happy they must have *virtue;* that virtue is not to be attained without *knowledge*, nor knowledge without *instruction*, nor public instruction without *free schools*, nor free schools without *legislative order*.

"Among a people who fear God, the knowledge of duty is the same as doing it. Believing it to be the first command of God, "let there be light," and believing it to be the will of God that "all should be instructed, from the least to the greatest," these wise legislators at once set about public instruction. They did not ask, How will my constituents like this? Won't they turn me out? Shall I not lose my three dollars per-day? No! but fully persuaded that public instruction is God's will, because the people's good, they set about it like the true friends of the people.

"Now mark the happy consequence. When the war broke out, you heard of no division in New England, no toryism, nor any of its horrid effects; no houses in flames, kindled by the hands of fellow-citizens; no neighbors waylaying and shooting their neighbors, plundering their property, carrying off their stock and aiding the British in the cursed work of American murder and sub-

jugation. But on the contrary, with minds well informed of their rights, and hearts glowing with love for themselves and posterity, they rose up against the enemy, firm and united, as a band of shepherds against the ravening wolves.

"And their valor in the field gave glorious proof how men will fight when they know their all is at stake. See Major Pitcairn, on the memorable 19th of April, 1775, marching from Boston, with one thousand British regulars, to burn the American stores at Concord. Though this heroic excursion was commenced under cover of the night, the farmers soon took the alarm, and gathering around them with their fowling pieces, presently knocked down one-fourth of their number, and caused the rest to run, as if, like the swine in the gospel, they had a *legion of devils at their backs.*

"Now, with sorrowful eyes, let us turn to our own state, where no pains were ever taken to enlighten the minds of the poor. There we have seen a people naturally as brave as the New Englanders, for mere *lack of knowledge of their blessings possessed, of the dangers threatened,* suffer lord Cornwallis, with only sixteen hundred men, to chase General Greene upwards of three hundred miles! In fact, to scout him through the two great states of South and North Carolina, as far as Guilford court-house! And, when Greene, joined at that place by two thousand poor illiterate militia-men, determined at length to fight, what did he gain by them, with all their number, but disappointment and disgrace? For, though posted very advantageously behind the cornfield fences, they could not stand a single fire from the British, but in spite of their officers, broke and fled like base-born slaves, leaving their loaded muskets sticking in the fence corners!

"But, from this shameful sight, turn again to the land of *free schools;* to Bunker's Hill. There, behind a poor ditch of half a night's raising, you behold fifteen hundred militia-men waiting the approach of *three thousand British regulars with a heavy train of artillery!* With such odds against them, such fearful odds in numbers, discipline, arms and martial fame, will they not shrink from the contest, and, like their southern friends, jump up and run! Oh no; to a man they have been taught to *read;* to a man they have been instructed to *know,* and dearer than life to prize, the blessings of FREEDOM. Their bodies are lying behind ditches, but their thoughts are on the wing, darting through eternity. The warning voice of God still rings in their ears. The hated forms of proud, merciless kings pass before their eyes. They look back to the days of old, and strengthen themselves as they think what their gallant forefathers dared for LIBERTY and for THEM. They looked forward to their own dear children, and yearn over the unoffending millions, now, in tearful eyes, looking up to them for protection. And shall this infinite host of deathless beings, created in God's own image, and capable by VIRTUE and EQUAL LAWS, of endless progression in glory and happiness; shall they be arrested in their high career, and from the freeborn sons of God, be degraded into the slaves of man? Maddening at the accursed thought, they grasp their avenging firelocks, and drawing their sights along the death-charged tubes, they long for the coming up of the British thousands. Three times the British thousands came up; and three times the dauntless yeomen, waiting their near approach, received them in storms of thunder and lightning that shivered their ranks, and heaped the field with their weltering carcasses.

"In short, my dear sir, men will always fight for their government according to their sense of its value. To value it aright, they must understand it. This

they can not do without education. And as a large portion of the citizens are poor, and can never attain that inestimable blessing, without the aid of government, it is plainly the first duty of government to bestow it freely upon them. And the more perfect the government, the greater the duty to make it well known. Selfish and oppressive governments, indeed, as Christ observes, must 'hate the light, and fear to come to it, because their deeds are evil.' But a fair and cheap government, like our republic, 'longs for the light, and rejoices to come to the light, that it may be manifested to be from God,' and well worth all the vigilance and valor that an enlightened nation can rally for its defense. And, God knows, a good government can hardly ever be half anxious enough to give its citizens a thorough knowledge of its own excellencies. For as some of the most valuable truths, for lack of careful promulgation, have been lost; so the best government on earth, if not duly known and prized, may be subverted. Ambitious demagogues will rise, and the people *through ignorance* and *love of change*, will follow them. Vast armies will be formed, and bloody battles fought. And after desolating their country with all the horrors of civil war, the guilty survivors will have to bend their necks to the iron yokes of some stern usurper, and like beasts of burden, to drag, unpitied, those galling chains which they have riveted upon themselves for ever."

This, as nearly as I can recollect, was the substance of the *last dialogue* I ever had with Marion.—*Weems' Life of General Marion.*

The following are the published declarations of men in high standing in South Carolina nearer our own time:—

GOV. SEABROOK, in 1849 in his Message remarks: "Education has been provided by the Legislature for but one class of the citizens of the State, which is the wealthy class. For the middle and poorer classes of society, it has done nothing, since no organized system has been adopted for that purpose. Ten years ago [out of a white population according to the census of 1840, of 259,084] twenty thousand adults, besides children, were unable to read or write, in South Carolina. Are there not reasonable fears that the number has increased since that period?"

GOV. HAMMOND, in an address before the S. C. Institute in 1857, states:—"There are not less than 50,000 [out of 300,000 white inhabitants] whose industry does not give them such support as every white person in this country feels himself entitled to."

CHANCELLOR HARPER, in an address, printed in De Bow's Review, in remarking on the claims set forth by those who advocate the education of the working classes, asks: "Would you do a benefit to the horse, or the ox, by giving him a cultivated understanding or fine feelings? So far as the mere laborer has the pride, the knowledge and the aspiration of a freeman, he is unfitted for his situation, and must doubly feel its infelicity."

GOV. ADAMS, in 1855, urged the Legislature to make at least an effort to provide elementary education, for "the poor of the land are hopelessly doomed to ignorance, poverty, and crime."

A WRITER in De Bow's "Industrial Resources of the South," remarks of the industrial non-slaveholding whites of South Carolina, "that the acquisition of a respectable position in the scale of wealth appears so difficult, that they decline the hopeless pursuit. An evident deterioration is taking place in this part of the population, the younger portion of it being less educated, less industrious, and in every point of view, less respectable than their ancestors."

BARRING-OUT—FROM "GEORGIA SCENES."

We have not been very successful in gathering the printed testimony of the dead, or the vivid reminiscences of the living, respecting the internal economy of schools, public or family, in Georgia or any of the Southern States, prior to 1800. The following graphic sketch of "the turnout" of the schoolmaster, from Judge Longstreet's "Georgia Scenes," is said to be "literally true:"—

In the good old days of *fescues*, *abisselfas*, and *anpersants*,* terms which used to be familiar in this country during the Revolutionary War, and which lingered in some of our county schools for a few years afterwards, I visited my friend, Captain Griffen, who resided about seven miles to the eastward of Wrightsborough, then in Richmond, but now in Columbia, county. I reached the captain's hospitable dome on Easter, and was received by him and his good lady with a *Georgia welcome* of 1790.

The day was consumed in the interchange of news between the captain and myself, (though, I confess, it might have been better employed,) and the night found us seated round a temporary fire, which the captain's sons had kindled up for the purpose of dyeing eggs. It was a common custom of those days with boys to dye and peck eggs on Easter Sunday, and for a few days afterward. They were colored according to the fancy of the dyer; some yellow, some green, some purple, and some with a variety of colors, borrowed from a piece of calico. They were not unfrequently beautified with a taste and skill which would have extorted a compliment from Hezekiah Niles, if he had seen them a year ago, in the hands of the "*young operatives*," in some of the Northern manufactories. No sooner was the work of dyeing finished, than our "young operatives" sallied forth to stake the whole proceeds of their "*domestic industry*" upon a peck. Egg was struck against egg, point to point, and the egg that was broken was given up as lost to the owner of the one which came whole from the shock.

While the boys were busily employed in the manner just mentioned, the captain's youngest son, George, gave us an anecdote highly descriptive of the Yankee and Georgia character, even in their buddings, and at this early date. "What you think, pa," said he; "Zeph Pettibone went and got his uncle Zach to turn him a wooden egg; and he won a whole hatful o' eggs from all us boys 'fore we found it out; but, when we found it out, maybe John Brown didn't smoke him for it, and took away all his eggs, and give 'em back to us boys; and you think he didn't go then and git a guinea egg, and win most as many more, and John Brown would o' give it to him agin if all we boys hadn't said we thought it was fair. I never see such a boy as that Zeph Pettibone in all my life. He don't mind whipping no more 'an nothing at all if he can win eggs."

---

* The *fescue* was a sharpened wire or other instrument used by the preceptor to point out the letters to the children.

Abisselfa is a contraction of the words, "a by itself, a." It was usual, when either of the vowels constituted a syllable of a word, to pronounce it, and denote its independent character by the words just mentioned, thus: "A by itself, *a*, c-o-r-n corn, *acorn*;" "e by itself, *e*, v-i-l, *evil*," etc.

The character which stands for the word "*and*" (&) was probably pronounced with the same accompaniment, but in terms borrowed from the Latin language, thus: "& *per se*" (by itself) &. Hence, "anpersant."

This anecdote, however, only fell in by accident, for there was an all-absorbing subject which occupied the minds of the boys during the whole evening, of which I could occasionally catch distant hints, in undertones and whispers, but of which I could make nothing, until they were afterward explained by the captain himself. Such as "I'll be bound Pete Jones and Bill Smith stretches him." "By Jockey, soon as they seize him, you'll see me down upon him like a duck upon a June-bug." "By the time he touches the ground, he'll think he's got into a hornet's nest," etc.

"The boys," said the captain, as they retired, "are going to turn out the schoolmaster to-morrow, and you can perceive they think of nothing else. We must go over to the school-house and witness the contest, in order to prevent injury to preceptor or pupils; for, though the master is always, upon such occasions, glad to be turned out, and only struggles long enough to present his patrons a fair apology for giving the children a holiday, which he desires as much as they do, the boys always conceive a holiday gained by a 'turnout,' as the sole achievement of their valor; and in their zeal to distinguish themselves upon such memorable occasions, they sometimes become too rough, provoke the master to wrath, and a very serious conflict ensues. To prevent these consequences, to bear witness that the master was *forced* to yield before he would withhold a day of his promised labor from his employers, and to act as a mediator between him and the boys in settling the articles of peace, I always attend; and you must accompany me to-morrow." I cheerfully promised to do so.

The captain and I rose before the sun, but the boys had risen and were off to the school-house before the dawn. After an early breakfast, hurried by Mrs. G. for our accommodation, my host and myself took up our line of march toward the school-house. We reached it about half an hour before the master arrived, but not before the boys had completed its fortifications. It was a simple log pen, about twenty feet square, with a doorway cut out of the logs, to which was fitted a rude door, made of clapboards, and swung on wooden hinges. The roof was covered with clapboards also, and retained in their places by heavy logs placed on them. The chimney was built of logs, diminishing in size from the ground to the top, and overspread inside and out with red clay mortar. The classic hut occupied a lovely spot, overshadowed by majestic hickories, towering poplars, and strong-armed oaks. The little plain on which it stood was terminated, at the distance of about fifty paces from its door, by the brow of a hill, which descended rather abruptly to a noble spring that gushed joyously forth from among the roots of a stately beech at its foot. The stream from this fountain scarcely burst into view before it hid itself beneath the dark shade of a field of cane, which overspread the dale through which it flowed, and marked its windings, until it turned from the sight among vine-covered hills, at a distance far beyond that to which the eye could have traced it without the help of its evergreen belt. A remark of the captain's, as we viewed the lovely country around us, will give the reader my apology for the minuteness of the foregoing description. "These lands," said he, "will never wear out. Where they lie level, they will be as good fifty years hence as they are now." Forty-two years afterward I visited the spot on which he stood when he made the remark. The sun poured his whole strength upon the bald hill which once supported the sequestered school-house; many a deep-washed gully met at a sickly bog where gushed the limpid fountain; a dying willow rose from the soil which nourished

the venerable beech; flocks wandered among the dwarf pines, and cropped a scanty meal from the vale where the rich cane bowed and rustled to every breeze, and all around was barren, dreary, and cheerless. But to return.

The boys had strongly fortified the school-house, of which they had taken possession. The door was barricaded with logs, which I should have supposed would have defied the combined powers of the whole school. The chimney, too, was nearly filled with logs of goodly size; and these were the only passways to the interior. I concluded, if a *turn-out* was all that was necessary to decide the contest in favor of the boys, they had already gained the victory. They had, however, not as much confidence in their outworks as I had, and therefore had armed themselves with long sticks, not for the purpose of using them upon the master if the battle should come to close quarters, for this was considered unlawful warfare, but for the purpose of guarding their *works* from his approaches, which it was considered perfectly lawful to protect by all manner of jobs and punches through the cracks. From the early assembling of the girls, it was very obvious that they had been let into the conspiracy, though they took no part in the active operations. They would, however, occasionally drop a word of encouragement to the boys, such as "I wouldn't turn out the master; but if I did turn him out, I'd die before I'd give up."

At length Mr. Michael St. John, the schoolmaster, made his appearance. Though some of the girls had met him a quarter of a mile from the school-house, and told him all that had happened, he gave signs of sudden astonishment and indignation when he advanced to the door, and was assailed by a whole platoon of sticks from the cracks. "Why, what does all this mean?" said he, as he approached the captain and myself, with a countenance of two or three varying expressions.

"Why," said the captain, "the boys have turned you out, because you have refused to give them an Easter holiday."

"Oh," returned Michael, "that's it, is it? Well, I'll see whether their parents are to pay me for letting their children play when they please." So saying, he advanced to the school-house, and demanded, in a lofty tone, of its inmates, an unconditional surrender.

"Well, give us a holiday, then," said twenty little urchins within, "and we'll let you in."

"Open the door of the *academy*"—(Michael would allow nobody to call it a school-house)—"Open the door of the academy this instant," said Michael, "or I'll break it down."

"Break it down," said Pete Jones and Bill Smith, "and we'll break you down."

During this colloquy I took a peep into the fortress, to see how the garrison were affected by the parley. The little ones were obviously panic-struck at the first words of command; but their fears were all chased away by the bold, determined reply of Pete Jones and Bill Smith, and they raised a whoop of defiance.

Michael now walked round the academy three times, examining all its weak points with great care. He then paused, reflected for a moment, and wheeled off suddenly toward the woods, as though a bright thought had just struck him. He passed twenty things which I supposed he might be in quest of, such as huge stones, fence rails, portable logs, and the like, without bestowing the least

attention upon them. He went to one old log, searched it thoroughly, then to another, then to a hollow stump, peeped into it with great care, then to a hollow log, into which he looked with equal caution, and so on.

"What is he after?" inquired I.

"I'm sure I don't know," said the captain, "but the boys do. Don't you notice the breathless silence which prevails in the school-house, and the intense anxiety with which they are eyeing him through the cracks?"

At this moment Michael had reached a little excavation at the root of a dogwood, and was in the act of putting his hand into it, when a voice from the garrison exclaimed, with most touching pathos, "Lo'd o' messy, he's found my eggs! boys, let's give up."

"I won't give up," was the reply from many voices at once.

"Rot your cowardly skin, Zeph Pettibone, you wouldn't give a wooden egg for all the holidays in the world."

If these replies did not reconcile Zephaniah to his apprehended loss, it at least silenced his complaints. In the meantime Michael was employed in relieving Zeph's store-house of its provisions; and, truly, its contents told well for Zeph's skill in egg-pecking. However, Michael took out the eggs with great care, and brought them within a few paces of the school-house, and laid them down with equal care in full view of the besieged. He revisited the places which he had searched, and to which he seemed to have been led by intuition; for from nearly all of them did he draw eggs, in greater or less numbers. These he treated as he had done Zeph's, keeping each pile separate. Having arranged the eggs in double files before the door, he marched between them with an air of triumph, and once more demanded a surrender, under pain of an entire destruction of the garrison's provisions.

"Break 'em just as quick as you please," said George Griffin; "our mothers 'll give us a plenty more, won't they, pa?"

"I can answer for yours, my son," said the captain; "she would rather give up every egg upon the farm than to see you play the coward or traitor to save your property."

Michael, finding that he could make no impression upon the fears or the avarice of the boys, determined to carry their fortifications by storm. Accordingly he procured a heavy fence-rail, and commenced the assault upon the door. It came to pieces, and the upper logs fell out, leaving a space of about three feet at the top. Michael boldly entered the breach, when, by the articles of war, sticks were thrown aside as no longer lawful weapons. He was resolutely met on the half demolished rampart by Peter Jones and William Smith, supported by James Griffin. These were the three largest boys in the school; the first about sixteen years of age, the second about fifteen, and the third just eleven. Twice was Michael repulsed by these young champions; but the third effort carried him fairly into the fortress. Hostilities now ceased for awhile, and the captain and I, having leveled the remaining logs at the door, followed Michael into the house. A large three-inch plank (if it deserve that name, for it was wrought from the half of a tree's trunk entirely with the axe,) attached to the logs by means of wooden pins, served the whole school for a writing desk. At a convenient distance below it, and on a line with it, stretched a smooth log, resting upon the logs of the house, which answered for the writers' seat. Michael took his seat upon the desk, placed his feet on the seat, and was sitting

very composedly, when, with a simultaneous movement, Pete and Bill seized each a leg, and marched off with it in quick time. The conseqence is obvious; Michael's head first took the desk, then the seat, and finally the ground, (for the house was not floored,) with three sonorous thumps of most doleful portent. No sooner did he touch the ground than he was completely buried with boys. The three elder laid themselves across his head, neck, and breast, the rest arranging themselves *ad libitum*. Michael's equanimity was considerably disturbed by the first thump, became restive with the second, and took flight with the third. His first effort was to disengage his legs, for without them he could not rise, and to lie in his present position was extremely inconvenient and undignified. Accordingly he drew up his right, and kicked at random. This movement laid out about six in various directions upon the floor. Two rose crying. "Ding his old red-headed skin," said one of them, "to go and kick me right in my sore belly, where I fell down and raked it, running after that fellow that cried 'school butter.' "*

"Drot his old snaggle-tooth picture," said the other, "to go and hurt my sore toe, where I knocked the nail off going to the spring to fetch a gourd of *warter* for him, and not for myself n'other."

"Hut!" said Captain Griffin, "young Washingtons mind these trifles! At him again."

The name of Washington cured their wounds and dried up their tears in an instant, and they legged him *de novo*. The left leg treated six more as unceremoniously as the right had those just mentioned; but the talismanic name had just fallen upon their ears before the kick, so they were invulnerable. They therefore returned to the attack without loss of time. The struggle seemed to wax hotter and hotter for a short time after Michael came to the ground, and he threw the children about in all directions and postures, giving some of them thumps which would have placed the *ruffle-shirted* little darlings of the present day under the discipline of paregoric and opodeldoc for a week; but these hardy sons of the forest seemed not to feel them. As Michael's head grew easy, his limbs, by a natural sympathy, became more quiet, and he offered one day's holiday as the price. The boys demanded a week; but here the captain interposed, and after the common but often unjust custom of arbitrators, split the difference. In this instance the terms were equitable enough, and were immediately acceded to by both parties. Michael rose in a good humor, and the boys were of course. Loud was their talking of their deeds of valor as they retired. One little fellow about seven years old, and about three feet and a half high, jumped up, cracked his feet together, and exclaimed, "By jingo, Pete Jones, Bill Smith, and *me* can hold any *Sinjin* [St. John] that ever trod Georgy grit."

* I have never been able to satisfy myself clearly as to the literal meaning of these terms. They were considered an unpardonable insult to a country school, and always justified an attack by the whole fraternity upon the person who used them in their hearing. I have known the scholars pursue a traveler two miles to be revenged of the insult. Probably they are a corruption of "The school's better." "*Better*" was the term commonly used of old to denote a *superior*, as it sometimes is in our day—"Wait till your betters are served," for example. I conjecture, therefore, the expression just alluded to was one of challenge, contempt, and defiance, by which the person who used it, avowed himself the *superior* in all respects of the whole school, from the preceptor down. If any one can give a better account of it, I shall be pleased to receive it.

VII. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE IN THE UNITED STATES

SIXTY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO

Third Article.

LETTER FROM JEREMIAH DAY, D. D., LL. D.

Late President of Yale College.

[JEREMIAH DAY, D. D., LL. D., was born in the Ecclesiastical Society of New Preston, town of Washington, Conn., of the Congregational Church of which parish his father was pastor for fifty years. He entered Yale College in 1789, but owing to infirm health, he did not graduate in regular course with his class, but in 1795. He succeeded Dr. Dwight in his school at Greenfield Hill (Fairfield,) for a year, when he accepted a tutorship in Williams College, where he remained till he was chosen tutor in Yale College in 1798. In that institution he labored faithfully and with uniform distinction as Tutor, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy from 1800 to 1817, and President from 1817 to 1846, when he resigned on account of feeble health, universally beloved and respected. His "*Algebra*," first published in 1818, "*Mensuration of Superficies and Solids*," in 1814, his "*Plane Trigonometry*," in 1815, his "*Navigation and Surveying*," in 1817, were very widely used in Academies and Colleges. In 1865 he was the oldest living graduate of the College, a noble representative of the olden style of temperance, learning, and piety. H. B.]

NEW HAVEN, *August 15th*, 1865.

DEAR SIR,—My earliest attending at school was in the common country schools. The teachers were men of no superior education. I was taught to read and spell in Dilworth's spelling book, an English work. When Webster's was first introduced, it excited much curiosity, especially his making a single syllable of *tion*. I do not recollect studying any arithmetic previous to Pike's, which was then studied in college. The school-houses were plain wood buildings of one story, and having but one room. I began to study Latin by myself, in my tenth year. In my thirteenth year, I went from New Preston, my native place, to Waterbury, to spend the winter in an academy, studying in a two story brick building. My teacher in Latin was a gentleman who had just been graduated at Yale College. This was about all the instruction in the ancient languages which I received before entering the college in September, 1789. The requisites for admission were four or five orations of Cicero, about as much in Virgil, and the four Gospels in the Greek Testament.

Cordially, Yours

JEREMIAH DAY.

TO HON. HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.

LETTER FROM JUDGE HALL, WILMINGTON, DEL.

[As is well known to the student of our educational history, the writer of the following letter, who is still living (May 1865) at Wilmington, Del., was an early, earnest and indefatigable friend of popular education, and at one time, almost the only friend of this description in the State of Delaware. He was mainly instrumental in introducing public schools into the city of Wilmington, as well as into the State, and gave the latter such efficiency as they have, through the annual meetings of the Newcastle County Educational Convention.]

WILMINGTON, DEL., *March* 31, 1865.

HON. HENRY BARNARD,

DEAR SIR,—I was born in Westford, Mass, December 24, 1780. This town lies N. W. from Boston, about 28 miles; Groton is on the west of it, and Chelmsford, a corner of which, barren and desolate in my youth, is the site of the city of Lowell, is on the east. I can go back in memory to the common schools as they were in 1785. My father at the time of my birth resided in the center of the town. In March, 1787, he removed to a place 2½ miles distant. I have a fresh memory of occurrences more than two years prior to that removal.

My grandfather was the first settled minister of Westford. He was a zealous advocate of common schools and popular education. The town having one year deemed themselves excused by the peculiar hardness of the times from making provision as required by law for schools, he arraigned his charge on whom he was dependent, with much offense to some of his friends, before the General Court for this delinquency, and effectually dispelled the notion that it could be allowed in any case to omit provision for schools. Whether for this or other cause, I believe the common mind in Westford was more decidedly favorable to schools, with juster views of the necessity and importance of them, than in the neighboring towns. This led to the institution of an academy in the town in 1792, although the town in wealth and population was inferior.

I have no correct knowledge of the law of Massachusetts, requiring towns to make provision for common schools, either as it was in 1785 or is now. I believe that it was formerly required that the towns in their yearly meeting should determine a sum to be raised by taxes for schools; and this should be apportioned among different sections of the town, called I know not whether in vulgar or legal phrase, squads. I believe any scholar in the town could attend any of these schools. I know I was in the habit of attending the schools in three sections. I was so situated on the place to which my father removed in 1787, that I was 2½ miles from the school in the center of the town, 2 miles from the school in Stony Brook section, and 1½ mile from the northern section in which we resided. I attended in this section when there was a school, and when not, in the center or Stony Brook.

The winter months were considered school time. It was a long school that was kept the three winter months. About eight weeks was, I believe, the common time. In the center of the town was sometimes, not always, a school taught by a female in summer. A man teaching school in the summer would have been thought entirely out of place—an unnatural appearance.

Upon my first knowledge of the schools there was not a school-house in Westford. A room was hired in some house and filled with desks and benches.

I attended school often in the center of the town, also I attended in the southern section and the Stony Brook section in such a room. I have no recollection of convenience, or inconvenience; no such words were in use upon this subject.

School-houses were built in 1788, I believe. People probably were tired of allowing the school to be kept in their houses. The frame of the school-house in the center of the town was erected, and it remained for months uncovered. It was a subject of jeers; it was said the frame would be suffered to rot and fall. In the section in which my father resided, a school-house was built, and I went to the school first kept in it. I have fresh on my mind the date of a letter written by one of the scholars—it was 1789—probably January. In the winter of 1791-2 I attended the school in the Stony Brook section; it was kept in a room of the house of a resident of the section. It was taught by a scholar of Harvard College.

The branches taught were reading, spelling, writing, ciphering. Geography or grammar were unheard sounds. Dilworth's spelling book was at first the only reading book. Toward the last of my time a reading book of Noah Webster was introduced: it contained some history, and Gibbon's beautiful narrative of his early acquaintance with the daughter of a Presbyterian clergyman, who became Madame Neckar. I have no recollection of any arithmetic. Cipherers made a blank-book of a quire of paper; their sums, and the process and answer, were set down in it. The teacher depended upon his ciphering book which he had made under his teacher.

The teacher whom I principally knew was a young man of Westford who had learned in the common school to read fluently, write a good hand and cipher to double rule of three and practice. He was smart. He was married, and had a small farm. In winter he taught school. He had no knowledge of geography or grammar. One winter the school in the center was taught by a scholar of Harvard College. He graduated July, 1786. I suppose it was the preceding winter. In the winter of 1791-2 the school in Stony Brook section was taught by a scholar from Harvard. Another scholar from Harvard taught the school in the center.

In 1792, September, the Academy was opened at Westford, and I entered it, and was in it and in Harvard College till I graduated in July, 1799. I knew little of common schools after this date of 1792. Occasionally a scholar of the Academy was employed to teach a school. In college several scholars depended upon this employment as an aid to meet their college expenses. I was employed one winter about eight weeks in a section of Chelsea. The same branches, reading, spelling, writing, ciphering were taught; none wishing to go further.

I never knew any of geography or grammar until I went to the Academy. There was no dictionary in the common schools. The teacher, the young man whom I have mentioned, had one, as a great rarity, and he remarked as a proof of superior proficiency, that I could find a word in it as soon as he could. I was nearly twelve years of age when I was sent to the Academy. I consider that all of learning, which I had then acquired, was not equal to what could have been attained by six months application.

The Academy was at first decidedly injurious to the common schools; for all who desired their children to be educated, sent them to the Academy; leaving the common schools to those indifferent and heedless upon the subject of edu-

cation. What has since been the effect I have no means of knowledge. The Academy still continues; but in a very different state of prosperity and influence from that in which it was in the first years of its existence; in 1825 I went to see the school-house which was built, as I have mentioned, in the section where my father resided. It would have served admirably for a figure in the great painting of the end of the world. Even yet, nothing seems so difficult as to inspire the popular mind with interest in the subject of popular education, so as to produce care and pains on the part of the people sufficient to make provision for the instruction and training of their children.

In 1803, April, I came to Delaware and settled at Dover. There was then no provision by law in the state for schools. Neighbors or small circles united and hired a teacher for their children. There were in some rare places school-houses. There was no school-house in Dover. The teacher there in 1803 was a foreigner who hired a room and admitted scholars at prices. The teachers frequently were intemperate, whose qualification seemed to be—inability to earn any thing in any other way. A clergyman who had some pretensions as a scholar, but had been silenced as a preacher for incorrigible drunkenness, stood very prominent as a teacher. In the best towns it depended upon accident what kind of school they had. In Wilmington at one time they had a very good teacher; he made teaching respectable, and interested parents in the instruction of their children. In Dover we sent to Harvard College in 1813 and procured a teacher who was with us several years. Afterward we were left to chance but fortunately generally had a good school. But even in the best neighborhoods, teachers of the young frequently were immoral and incapable; and in the country generally there was either a school of the worst character or no school at all.

In 1829 a system of schools was instituted for our state by the Legislature. The system was simple; dividing the counties into school districts of convenient size, and giving the school voters of the district power to elect a school committee of three and determine upon the sum to be raised in the district for school purposes, and investing the school committee with full power over the subject of a school for the district. In Newcastle county this system has worked well. In Kent and Sussex not so well. The difference may in some degree be attributed to there having been for years in Newcastle county a school convention annually assembled to discuss the condition of the schools, and no such convention in Kent or Sussex.

But I am going beyond the purpose of this communication—to show the condition of common schools before any legal provision for their support. I therefore close, having trespassed too long.

 WILLARD HALL.

THE SCHOOL-HOUSE AND SCHOOL OF MY YOUTH.—BY A TEACHER, (A. BRONSON ALCOTT.)

THE school house stood near the center of the district, at the junction of four roads, so near the usual track of carriages, that a large stone was set up at the end of the building to defend it from injury. Except in the dry season the ground is wet, permitting small collections of water on the surface, and the soil by no means firm. The spot is peculiarly exposed to the bleak winds of winter, nor are there at present any shade trees near, to shelter the children from the scorching rays of the summer's sun during their recreations. There were a few formerly; but they were cut down many years ago. Neither is there any such thing as an outhouse of any kind, not even a wood shed.

The size of the building was twenty-two feet long, by twenty broad. From the floor to the ceiling, it was seven feet. The chimney and entry took up about four feet at one end, leaving the school-room itself, twenty feet by eighteen. Around three sides of the room, were connected desks, arranged so that when the pupils were sitting at them, their faces were towards the instructor, and their backs towards the wall. Attached to the sides of the desks nearest to the instructor, were benches for small pupils. The instructor's desk and chair occupied the center. On this desk were stationed a rod or ferule; sometimes both. These, with books, writings, inkstands, rules, and plummets, with a fire shovel and a pair of tongs, (often broken,) were the principal furniture.

The windows were five in number, of twelve panes each. They were situated so low in the walls, as to give full opportunity to the pupils to see every traveler as he passed, and to be easily broken. The places of the broken panes were usually supplied with hats, during the school hours. The entry was four feet square. A depression in the chimney on one side of the entry, furnished a place of deposit for about half of the hats and spare clothes of the boys; and the rest were left on the floor, often to be trampled upon. The girls generally carried their bonnets, &c., into the school-room. The floor and ceiling were level, and the walls were plastered.

The room was warmed by a large and deep fireplace. So large was it, and so little efficacious in warming the room otherwise, that I have seen about one eighth of a cord of good wood burning in it at a time. In severe weather, it was estimated that the amount usually consumed was not far from a cord, or one hundred and twenty-eight feet, a week.

The school was not unfrequently broken up for a day or two for want of wood, in former years; but since they have used a smaller fireplace, this occurrence has been more rare. The instructor or pupils were, however, sometimes compelled to cut or saw it, to prevent the closing of the school. The wood was left in the road near the house, so that it was often buried in the snow or wet with the rain. At the best, it was usually burnt green. The fires were to be kindled about half an hour before the time of beginning the school. Often, the scholar, whose lot it was, neglected to build it. In consequence of this, the house was frequently cold and uncomfortable about half the forenoon, when the fire being very large, the excess of heat became equally distressing. Frequently, too, we were annoyed by smoke. The greatest amount of suffering, however, arose from excessive heat, particularly at the close of the day. The pupils being in a free perspiration when they retired, were very liable to take cold.

The ventilation of the school-room was as much neglected as its temperature; and its cleanliness, more perhaps than either. Situated as the house was, the latter might seem to be in a measure unavoidable. There were, however, no arrangements made for cleaning feet at the door, or for washing floors, windows, &c. In the summer the floor was washed, perhaps once in two or three weeks.

The winter school has usually been opened about the first of December, and continued from twelve to sixteen weeks. The summer school is commenced about the first of May. Formerly this was also continued about three or four months; but within ten years the term has been lengthened usually to twenty weeks. Males have been uniformly employed in winter, and females in summer.

The instructors have usually been changed every season, but sometimes they have been continued two successive summers or winters. A strong prejudice has always existed against employing the same instructor more than once or twice in the same district. This prejudice has yielded, in one instance, so far that an instructor who had taught two successive winters, twenty-five years before, was employed another season. I have not been able to ascertain the exact number of different instructors who have been engaged in the school during the last thirty years; but I can distinctly recollect thirty-seven. Many of them, both males and females, were from sixteen to eighteen years of age, and a few, over twenty-one.

Good moral character, and a thorough knowledge of the common branches, were formerly considered as indispensable qualifications in an instructor. The instructors were chiefly selected from the most respectable families in town. But for fifteen or twenty years, these things have not been so much regarded. They have indeed been deemed desirable; but the most common method now seems to be, to ascertain as near as possible the dividend for that season from the public treasury, and then fix upon a teacher who will take charge of the school three to four months for this money. He must indeed be able to obtain a license from the Board of Visitors; but this has become nearly a matter of course, provided he can spell, read, and write. In general, the candidate is some favorite or relative of the District Committee. It gives me great pleasure, however, to say that the moral character of almost every instructor, so far as I know, has been unexceptionable.

Instructors have usually boarded in the families of the pupils. Their compensation has varied from seven to eleven dollars a month for males; and from sixty-two and a half cents to one dollar a week for females. Within the last ten years, however, the price of instruction has rarely been less than nine dollars in the former case, and seventy-five cents in the latter. In the few instances in which the instructors have furnished their own board, the compensation has been about the same; it being supposed that they could work at some employment of their own, enough to pay their board, especially females. The only exceptions which I can recollect are two; both within five years. In one of these instances the instructor received twelve dollars, and in the other, eleven dollars and fifty cents a month.

Two of the Board of Visitors usually visit the winter schools twice during the term. In the summer, their visits are often omitted. These visits usually occupy from one hour to an hour and a half. They are spent in merely hearing a few hurried lessons, and in making some remarks, general in their character.

Formerly, it was customary to examine the pupils in some approved catechism; but this practice has been omitted for twenty years.

The parents seldom visit the school, except by special invitation. The greater number pay very little attention to it at all. There are, however, a few who are gradually awaking to the importance of good instruction; but there are also a few who oppose every thing which is suggested, as at the least, useless; and are scarcely willing their children should be governed in the school.

The school books have been about the same for thirty years. Webster's Spelling Book, the American Preceptor, and the New Testament, have been the principal books used. Before the appearance of the American Preceptor, Dwight's Geography was used as a reading book. A few of the Introduction to the American Orator were introduced about twelve years since, and more recently, Jack Halyard.

Until within a few years, no studies have been permitted in the day school, but spelling, reading, and writing. Arithmetic was taught by a few instructors, one or two evenings in a week. But in spite of a most determined opposition, arithmetic is now permitted in the day school, and a few pupils study geography.

When the schools were opened, especially in the Fall, many of the children were not sent immediately, for the want of shoes, clothes, &c. They were also apt to be late in the morning. It was usually near 10 o'clock before all had arrived. Many were also very irregular in attendance, especially in the winter. The slightest excuse for detaining a pupil from school, seemed sufficient. But in the summer, particularly within four or five years, their attendance has been I believe rather more regular.

Every instructor had enough to do, during the first month, in establishing his rules and modes of instruction; which were generally different from those of his predecessor. A longer time was necessary for the pupils to regain what they had lost.

In teaching the alphabet, it was customary for the instructor to take his seat, and point to the letters precisely in the order in which they are placed in the book, A, B, C, &c. If the pupil could name the letter immediately, it was well; if not, he was told it. After going through from A to Z, the double letters were also taught. Sometimes the process was inverted; beginning at the bottom and ending at A.

To teach spelling, a lesson was assigned, consisting of a certain number of columns of words arranged in alphabetical order, as the words of our spelling books usually are, which the pupil was requested to study over and over, until he could recollect and spell them from memory. None of them were ever defined for him; nor was he requested or encouraged to seek for definitions for himself. In this manner, one word suggested by association the next; the second, the third; and so on. No faculty was called into exercise but the memory. If a word was misspelled, the next pupil who could spell it was allowed to take his place, or "go above him," as it was called. He who was at the head of the class at evening had a credit mark, and sometimes a written certificate of good scholarship. Indeed, emulation was the only motive to exertion which I ever knew employed in the school, except compulsion.

In teaching reading, the process was equally mechanical. The instructor generally, though not always, read the first verse or paragraph, and sometimes read with them in his turn. The instructor, or the pupil at the head, made the

corrections. These extended no farther than the right pronunciation of the words, and a measured attention to the pauses. No regard was paid to tones, and little to emphasis and the proper inflections. "Read as you talk," was a rule seldom given, and still less frequently reduced to practice. It was customary to read the Testament and Preceptor, (the principal reading books,) generally in course. There were, however, certain days of the week on which they used to read only selected pieces. These consisted of some able oration, and perhaps a dialogue, with some of the more difficult poetry. When visitors called, they were commonly required to read these selections, which they had learned almost by heart. Some who were most successful in imitation, had also caught some of the appropriate tones and inflections from the instructor.

New beginners in writing usually had a copy of straight marks. Over the top of the next page the master wrote, *Avoid alluring company*, in large hand, which the pupil was required to imitate. A page a day, that is, one eighth of a common sheet of foolscap paper, was their common task in writing. The pupils' copies were usually in alpabetical order, and during the first year almost wholly of coarse hand, ruled (for all were required to rule) from one fourth to half an inch wide. Engraved copy slips, instead of written ones, were sometimes used.

When arithmetic was taught in the evenings, the instructor usually wrote sums for the pupil on a slate, which he was required to work. More recently, a few of Daboll's Arithmetics have been used as guides.

The order of exercises for a day was usually as follows.

From 9 o'clock, A. M., to 15 minutes past 9, the instructor came to the door with a large ferule, and struck several times on the door post as a signal for opening the school. Such pupils as were present came in, and either took their seats or crowded around the fire. Those of the first class who were present read in the Testament. The lesson consisted of from two to four chapters, according to their length. The time usually allotted to this exercise was from twenty to thirty minutes, or until most of the pupils had arrived.

When this exercise closed, writing was attended to. In the winter, copies and pens were to be prepared, ink to be thawed and watered, and numbers wished to go to the fire at once. In the midst of all this the second class usually took their Testaments for reading, but received little attention from the instructor. While the second and third classes were reading, the instructor usually finished copies and pens, and assigned the spelling lessons for the forenoon. Then the smaller classes were to be taught. Those who were able, read a few sentences of some of the easy lessons in the spelling-book, while others merely read over the words of the spelling lesson.

At about half past ten the welcome sound, "You may go out," was heard. Every one made his long "obeisance," and was immediately in the street; but in from five to ten minutes the loud rap brought them to the place of obeisance, and ultimately to their seats again. Within a few years past, the custom of having the two sexes go out separately has been introduced.

The rest of the forenoon was spent chiefly in spelling. The school closed at 12 o'clock. At the usual signal, "School's dismissed," a scene of confusion commenced. Some jumped and hallooed: some rushed for the door, and some were thrown down in the crowd, and perhaps hurt. But at all other times they usually went out in good order.

The rap on the door summoned them at 1 o'clock. The American Preceptor was then read for nearly half an hour by the first class, and about a quarter of an hour by the second. Writing went on again, simultaneously with the reading of the second and smaller classes.

When the course of lessons was finished, a short recess was allowed as in the forenoon. On coming in from recess or intermission, it was customary to have a pail of water and cup stand by the door. It was rarely handed round, but every one helped himself. Some when heated by exercise, drank large quantities, and the greater part of them drank, not to quench their thirst, but to cool themselves.

On coming in from the afternoon recess, the classes were all exercised in their spelling lessons again, beginning with the youngest. After spelling, the pauses, abbreviations, numeral letters, &c., were recited. They were, however, barely repeated, without any practical application. In addition to these, the instructor usually had a set of written questions, embracing the time when many remarkable events happened, the various currencies, tables of distance, weight, measure, &c. The first class, and sometimes the second, were required to answer these daily until they were perfectly familiar. Within ten years, the older classes have also been required to commit the introduction to the spelling book to memory; but it was always repeated in such a manner as to evince most clearly that it was not understood, nor did the instructor often attempt any explanation.

A table of words spelled differently, but pronounced alike, was usually a favorite table with most instructors. It consisted of four pages of the spelling-book. It was usually studied until many of the pupils could repeat it from beginning to end. But I never knew any teacher require his pupils to apply it.

If they wrote a letter, and had occasion to use the words *write* and *plain*, they were almost as likely to be spelled *wright* and *plane*, as in the proper manner.

The exercises of the day were usually closed by calling the roll or catalogue of pupils; by announcing the name of the scholar whose turn it was to make the fire next morning; and by giving the most positive orders for every pupil to "go straight home, and be civil to every body he might meet with." Once a week, the writers were required to write each a line for examination. They were then numbered according to their excellence. He whose line was No. 1, was allowed to have the first choice among the seats; No. 2, the second, and so on. About once a week they were also allowed to choose sides for spelling, which usually took up about half of the afternoon, and was attended with much evident effort to defraud, and many exhibitions of envy, jealousy and the spirit of contention. The side or party who misspelled the smallest number of words was declared to have *beat;* and they usually manifested much triumph.

Dialogues, too, were sometimes committed to memory, and repeated. They were usually of the coarser kind, and such as were calculated to elicit the worst passions, and describe the worst actions of men, such as revenge, duelling, treachery, murder, assassination and war.

This school, for the first twenty years of the period here referred to, was equal, if not superior, to the average of the schools in that part of the country.

SCHOOL REMINISCENCE BY HENRY WARD BEECHER.

It was our misfortune, in boyhood, to go to a District School. It was a little square pine building, blazing in the sun, upon the highway, without a tree for shade or sight near it; without bush, yard, fence, or circumstance to take off its bare, cold, hard, hateful look.—Before the door, in winter, was the pile of wood for fuel, and in summer, there were all the chips of the winter's wood. In winter, we were squeezed into the recess of the farthest corner, among little boys, who seemed to be sent to school merely to fill up the chinks between the bigger boys. Certainly we were never sent for any such absurd purpose as an education. There were the great scholars—the school in winter was for *them*, not for us picanninies.—We were read and spelt twice a day, unless something happened to prevent, which *did* happen about every other day. For the rest of the time we were busy in keeping still. And a time we always had of it. Our shoes always would be scraping on the floor, or knocking the shins of urchins who were also being "educated." All of our little legs together, (poor, tired, nervous, restless legs, with nothing to do,) would fill up the corner with such a noise, that every ten or fifteen minutes, the master would bring down his two-foot hickory ferule on the desk with a clap that sent shivers though our hearts, to think how that would have felt, if it had fallen somewhere else; and then, with a look that swept us all into utter extremity of stillness, he would cry, "silence! in that corner!" It would last for a few minutes; but, little boys' memories are not capacious.—Moreover, some of the boys had mischief, and some had mirthfulness, and some had both together. The consequence was that just when we were the most afraid to laugh, we saw the most comical things. Temptations, which we could have vanquished with a smile out in the free air, were irresistible in our little corner, where a laugh and a spank were very apt to woo each other. So, we would hold on, and fill up; and others would hold on and fill up too; till by-and-by the weakest would let go a mere whiffet of a laugh, and then down went all the precautions, and one went off, and another, and another, touching the others off like a pack of fire crackers! It was in vain to deny it. But as the process of snapping our heads, and pulling our ears went on with primitive sobriety, we each in turn, with tearful eyes, and blubbering lips, "declared we did not mean to," and that was true; and that "we wouldn't do so any more," and that was a lie, however unintentional; for we never failed to do just so again, and that about once an hour all day long.

Besides this, our principal business was to shake and shiver at the beginning of the school for very cold; and to sweat and stew for the rest of the time, before the fervid glances of a great box iron-stove, red-hot. There was one great event of horror and two of pleasure; the first was the act of *going to school*, comprehending the leaving off play, the face-washing and clothes-inspecting, the temporary play spell before the master came, the outcry "there he is; the master is coming," the hurly-burly rush, and the noisy clattering to our seats. The other two events of pleasure, were the play-spell and the dismission. Oh dear! can there be any thing worse for a lively, muscular, mirthful, active little boy, than going to a winter district-school? Yes. Going to a summer district-school! There is no comparison. The one is the Miltonic depth, below the deepest depth.

A woman kept the school, sharp, precise, unsympathetic, keen and untiring. Of all ingenious ways of fretting little boys, doubtless her ways were the most expert. Not a tree to shelter the house, the sun beat down on the shingles and clap-boards till the pine knots shed pitchy tears; and the air was redolent of hot pine wood smell. The benches were slabs with legs in them. The desks were slabs at an angle, cut, hacked, scratched; each year's edition of jack-knife literature overlaying its predecessor, until it then were cuttings and carvings two or three inches deep. But if *we* cut a morsel, or stuck in pins, or pinched off splinters, the little sharp-eyed mistress was on hand, and one look of her eye was worse than a sliver in our foot, and one nip of her fingers was equal to a jab of a pin; for we had tried both.

We envied the flies—merry fellows; bouncing about, tasting that apple skin, patting away at that crumb of bread; now out the window, then in again; on your nose, on neighbor's cheek, off to the very school-ma'am's lips; dodging her slap, and then letting off a real round and round buzz, up, down, this way, that way, and every way. Oh, we envied the flies more than any thing except the birds. The windows were so high that we could not see the grassy meadows; but we could see the tops of distant trees, and the far, deep, boundless blue sky. There flew the robins; there went the bluebirds; and there went we. We followed that old Polyglott, the skunk-blackbird, and heard him describe the way that they talked at the winding up of the Tower of Babel. We thanked every meadow-lark that sung on, rejoicing as it flew. Now and then a "chipping-bird" would flutter on the very window-sill, turn its little head side-wise, and peer in on the medley of boys and girls. Long before we knew it was in Scripture, we sighed: "Oh that we had the wings of a bird"—we would fly away, and be out of this hateful school. As for learning, the sum of all that we ever got at a district-school, would not cover the first ten letters of the alphabet. One good, kind, story-telling, Bible-rehearsing aunt at home, with apples and ginger-bread premiums, is worth all the school-ma'ams that ever stood by to see poor little fellows roast in those boy-traps called district-schools.

But this was thirty-five years ago. Doubtless it is all changed long since then. We mean *inside;* for certainly there are but few school-houses that we have seen in New England, whose outside was much changed. There is a beautiful house in Salisbury, Conn., just on the edge of the woods. It is worth going miles to see how a school-house *ought* to look. But generally the barrenest spot is chosen, the most utterly homely building is erected, without a tree or shrub; and then those that can't do better, pass their pilgrimage of childhood education there.

We are prejudiced of course. Our views and feelings are not to be trusted. They are good for nothing except to show what an effect our school-days left upon us. We abhor the thought of a school.—We do not go into them if we can avoid it. Our boyhood experience has pervaded our memory with such images, as breed a repugnance to district-schools, which we fear we shall not lay aside, until we lay aside every thing in the grave. We are sincerely glad, that it is not so with every body. There are thousands who revert with pleasure to those days. We are glad of it. But we look on such with astonishment.

VIII. REMINISCENCES OF FEMALE EDUCATION.

BY SENEX.*

MR. EDITOR:—Convinced that I can not be better employed than in promoting the interests of education, and especially that of females, from whose nurseries we are to receive men of wisdom to fill every department of useful influence in society, I cheerfully comply with your request, to state what I know of the rise and progress of *Female* Education in this country, during the *half-century past*. The place of my nativity was in the vicinity of Hartford, (Connecticut) and my acquaintance somewhat extended in the county. In 1770, common schools were open to every child, and the expense of instruction paid by the public, partly by the school fund, which was then but small, and partly by town taxes. In larger districts, the schools were kept six months in the year, in the smaller, two, three, or four months. The branches taught were spelling, reading, writing, and rarely even the first rules of arithmetic. The Assembly's Catechism was repeated at the close of every Saturday forenoon school. Those of good memory could repeat the whole hundred and eight answers, the ten commandments, a part of Dilworth's Rules of Spelling, the stops and marks of distinction, and the prosody. Dilworth's Spelling Book was introduced about the year 1762. I have known boys that could do something in the four first rules of arithmetic. Girls were never taught it. At public examinations, as late as 1774, in some instances earlier, the speaking of pieces and dialogues was introduced, and specimens of writing; but I never recollect arithmetic. Whether the school consisted of thirty, sixty, or even one hundred, which I have known, one teacher only was employed, and among his pupils there were sometimes twenty A B C scholars.

Girls had no separate classes, though generally sitting on separate benches. A merchant from Boston, resident in my native town, who was desirous to give his eldest daughter the best education, sent her to that city, one quarter, to be taught needlework and dancing, and to improve her manners in good and genteel company. To *complete* this education, *another* quarter, the year following, was spent at Boston. A third quarter was then allowed her at the school of a lady in Hartford. Another female among my schoolmates was allowed to attend the same school for the period of three months, to attain the same accomplishments of needlework, good reading, marking, and polished manners. These are the only instances of female education, beyond that of the common schools before described, which I knew, in a town of considerable extent on Connecticut River, until 1776. Soon after that period, I saw and instructed

* Rev. William Woodbridge, in the American Journal of Education for September, 1830, and in the American Annals of Education, for November, 1831.

two young ladies, who had attended the private instruction of a neighboring clergyman.

In 1779, two students of Yale College, during a long vacation, after the British troops invaded New Haven, had each a class of young ladies, who were taught arithmetic, geography, composition, &c., for the term of one quarter.

One of these students, (Rev. William Woodbridge,) during his senior year in college, in the severe winter of 1779-80, kept a young ladies' school in New Haven, consisting of about twenty-five scholars, in which he taught grammar, geography, composition, and the elements of rhetoric. The success of this school was such as to encourage a similar school in another place, and with about the same number of scholars. These attempts led to the opening of a similar school in Newburyport, which was supported two quarters only. Before that period the Moravians had opened a school for females in Bethlehem. This place has been long celebrated for its numbers, and continues to enjoy a high reputation, notwithstanding its many rivals. Full to overflowing, when they could accommodate no more, they opened other branches in other places, which I can not enumerate.

In 1780, in Philadelphia, for the first time in my life, I heard a class of young ladies parse English. After the success of the Moravians in female education, the attention of gentlemen of reputation and influence was turned to the subject. Drs. Morgan, Rush, (the great advocate of education,) with others, whom I can not name, instituted an academy for females in Philadelphia. Their attention, influence, and fostering care were successful, and from them sprang all the following and celebrated schools in that city. I have seen a pamphlet of about one hundred pages, entitled the "Rise and Progress of the Female Academy in Philadelphia," to which I must refer for farther and more particular information.

About the year 1785, young ladies were taught in the higher branches of education by Dr. Dwight, in his Academy at Greenfield, in the State of Connecticut, and his influence was exerted with great effect, in improving the state of female education.

In the year 1789, a Female Academy was opened in Medford, within five miles of Boston, so far as I am informed, the *first* establishment of the kind in New England. This was the resort of scholars from all the Eastern States. The place was delightful and airy, containing ample and commodious buildings, and fruit gardens of about five acres.

Here the school flourished in numbers for seven years, until the estate was divided and sold, and its removal became necessary. Seven years of experiment, however, had evinced the practicability of the plan. Schools upon a similar plan, and female high schools, in which the arts and sciences are taught, were soon multiplied, and a new order of things arose upon the female world.

[In a subsequent communication "Senex" thus resumes the subject.]

You inquire how so many of the females of New England, during the latter part of the last century, acquired that firmness, and energy, and excellence of character for which they have been so justly distinguished, while their advantages of school education were so limited.

The only answer to this question must be founded on the fact, that it is not the amount of knowledge, but the nature of that knowledge, and still more, the manner in which it is used, and the surrounding influences and habits, which

form the character. Natural logic—the self-taught art of thinking—was the guard and guide of the female mind. The first of Watts' five methods of mental improvement, "The attentive notice of every instructive object and occurrence," was not then in circulation, but was exemplified in practice. Newspapers were taken and read in perhaps half a dozen families, in the most populous villages and towns. Books, though scarce, were found in some families, and freely lent; and in place of a flood of books, many of which are trifling or pernicious, there were a few, of the best character. They were thoroughly read, and talked of, and digested. In town and village libraries, there were some useful histories, natural and political. Milton, Watts' Lyric Poems, Young's Night Thoughts, Hervey's Meditations, the Tattler, and Addison's Spectator, were not scarce, though not generally diffused. Pamela, Clarissa Harlow, and an abridgement of Grandison, were in a few hands, and eagerly read; and the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, was the chief work of this kind for the young.

But the daily, attentive study of the Holy Scriptures, the great source of all wisdom and discretion, was deemed indispensable in those days, when every child had a Bible, and was accustomed to read a portion of the lesson at morning prayers. This study, with the use of Watts' Psalms (a book which, with all the defects it may have, contains a rich treasure of poetry and thought, as well as piety,) at home, at church, and in singing schools, I regard as having furnished, more than all other books and instructions, the means of mental improvement, for forty years of the last century.

But when were found the hours for mental improvement? Time will always be found, for that which engages the affections. If the spinning day's work was one and a half, or two runs, early rising, and quick movements at the wheel, dispatched the task. The time was redeemed. Often was the book laid within reach of the eye that occasionally glanced upon it for a minute or two, while knitting or sewing.

In the families of educated men, social intercourse became an important means of education to the daughters. The parents spent their evenings at home. In almost every town, there were one or more collegiate students, or men of professional and liberal education. Many taught in the common schools, and "boarded round" in families. The conversation of such persons was then highly appreciated, listened to, repeated and remembered. These circumstances afforded considerable aid to the cause of female education; for here, as in other cases, the means more scantily provided, were more carefully improved.

The mind is formed by the current of its leading thoughts, as the intervale, by that of its river. At that period, the social, domestic and sacred virtues were the general standard of female merit, in place of learning and accomplishments. Throughout the wisdom of Solomon, the domestic virtues are extolled; and among the ancients, the companions of kings and princes, without these accomplishments, were thought unqualified for their station. The daughters of New England studied the economics of the Proverbs. Nine tenths of all the cloths in use were of domestic manufacture. So late as the eight years' Revolutionary war, when hand-cards only were used in carding wool, all, or nearly all, the clothing for the New England troops, was manufactured by the patient, laborious industry, of our mothers and daughters. This was done in addition to all family clothing, bedding and hosiery. If they had a calico, worsted, or

still more rarely, a silk gown, it was paid for in the produce of the dairy, or in home-made cloth. A wedding-gown often lasted until the daughter was ready to wear it on the like occasion.

But the wise and prudent mother in New England educated her daughters most by her own counsels and example, to virtue, and respectability. "Her mouth was opened with wisdom, and on her tongue was the law of kindness." Example, however,—practical example, led the way, and was accompanied by parental counsel. The father did not fail to enforce the counsels of maternal wisdom, by saying, "Be sure, my child, to obey your mother." An eagle eye of watchful care, like the nightly moonbeams, spread its influence over all their steps, and the public eye and opinion were two faithful sentinels, who never slept on the watch. Under such restraints and by such means were female virtues reared and guarded, and that sterling energy of character, of which you speak, was formed. Family government then was general. So was family worship among the serious and moral; who kept the Sabbath, and attended public worship so generally, that if one was absent, the conclusion was, that he was either out of town, or sick. The Revolution, however, changed the New England habits and manners surprisingly, and deplorably.

After the close of the Revolution, in 1783, females over ten years of age, in populous towns, were sometimes, though rarely, placed in the common schools, and taught to write a good hand, compose a little, cipher, and know something of history. The cause of female education was thus considerably advanced. Young women became ambitious to qualify themselves for school-keeping during the summer season, when sons were in the field.

When, at length, academies were opened for female improvement in the higher branches, a general excitement appeared in parents, and an emulation in daughters to attend them. Many attended such a school one or two quarters, others a year, some few longer. From these short periods of attendance for instruction in elementary branches, arose higher improvements. The love of reading and habits of application became fashionable; and fashion we know is the mistress of the world.

When the instruction of females in any of the departments of science was first proposed, it excited ridicule. The man who devoted his time and heart to the work was regarded as an Enthusiast. The cry was—"What need is there of learning how far off the sun is, when it is near enough to warm us?"—"What, will the teacher learn his pupils to make Almanacs?"—"When girls become scholars, who is to make the puddings and the pies?" But these narrow prejudices have almost passed away. Many have since become equally enthusiasts on this subject, and the results of an improved system of female education have not disappointed their hopes or mine. By a true discipline of mind, and application to the solid branches of knowledge, our well educated females have become more agreeable companions, more useful members of society, and more skillful and faithful teachers, without disqualifying themselves for domestic avocations. On the contrary, they have been better prepared by these means, to promote their own happiness, as well as that of others; whether the scene of their labors was the nursery, the kitchen, the parlor, or the wider sphere of public and extensive plans of benevolence; and at no period of history, perhaps, have the sex exerted a holier or happier influence upon society.

IX. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

REV. SAMUEL J. MAY.

SAMUEL J. MAY, an early, wise and indefatigable laborer in school reforms and progress, was born in Boston, September 12, 1797, the youngest son of Col. Joseph May, an eminent merchant of that city. His mother was a sister of the late Chief Justice Sewell of Mass. With the advantages of the best private schools which Boston had in his childhood and early youth, he entered Harvard College in Sept. 1813, and graduated with a high position in a class of seventy members in 1817. He got his first knowledge of common schools and his first experience in teaching in a District School in Concord, Mass., in the fall and winter of 1816. To the work of teaching a common school he then brought one acquisition, which was novel in that day, and which it has taken a half-century to introduce into elementary schools, private and public—a knowledge of the use of the blackboard, which he had seen for the first time in 1813 in the mathematical school kept by Rev. Francis Xavier Brosius, a Catholic priest from France, who had one suspended on the wall, with lumps of chalk on a ledge below, and cloths hanging on either side. In the private school of Rev. Henry Coleman in Hingham, in the District School in Beverly, and a private school at Nahant from 1817 to 1822, while pursuing his theological studies, he continued to teach for portions of the year and always with success both in government and instruction. He discarded from the start all attempts to govern by the rod, and all sham and pre-arranged questions and answers in school examinations and exhibitions, and invited and secured the attendance of parents on the ordinary daily exercises.

In 1822, Mr. May was settled over the First Congregational Church in Brooklyn, Conn., where he resided till April, 1835—and where he commenced a most useful career as school committee, in which he inaugurated many most important reforms in the details of school administration. Of some of these he has spoken in his Address delivered at the Normal Association at Bridgewater, Mass., Aug. 8, 1855, and published with the title, "Revival of Education," from which we make the following extracts.

In the spring of 1822, I was settled as the pastor of a church in Connecticut. Everywhere in our country, as well as in Europe, it was taken for granted that protestant ministers must appreciate the importance of the right culture of the young, and always be ready to promote their education. In several of the States both of Europe and of this country, ministers were by law held to be, *ex-officio*, supervisors of the common schools; and, whether so instated or not, in all our rural districts they were chosen to fill that important office. Hardly, therefore, had I received my ordination in the church, before I was appointed upon the school committee.

I had gone into Connecticut with highly raised expectations of the character of her schools. It was reasonable to suppose that the people of that small

State, who had so long ago as 1795, appropriated the income of twelve hundred thousand dollars to the education of children, must have been animated by a spirit, that would impel them to seek after the best methods, by which to make the bestowment as valuable as it might be. In the number of their schools and teachers, there certainly was no deficiency. The average throughout the State, in 1822, was about one for every thirty pupils—a good proportion all must allow, if so many children were regular in their attendance; and if the variety and quality of the instructions given to them had been such as they always and everywhere needed to receive. But neither the one nor the other was the case. Too many school-rooms presented a dull array of half-empty benches. The branches of knowledge, which it was pretended were taught, were only a few of the most elementary; and the books and methods used in imparting instruction were, with some excellent exceptions, miserably adapted to enlarge the intellectual vision of any, who had not keenness of sight enough to see through "confusion worse confounded." The hours that I spent in the schools committed to my care, were sometimes intolerably tedious to me; and would have been so also to the children confined there, if they had been saddened, as I was, by the consciousness of the wrongs they were suffering.

I had been in some measure prepared by my own training to descry the sad defects in the common methods of teaching, if not to show how they could be remedied. Not to mention other advantages that I had enjoyed, in the winter of 1813-14, during my first college vacations, I attended a mathematical school kept in Boston by the Rev. Francis Xavier Brosius, a Catholic priest who had fled to this country from persecution in France. He was a man of much learning and of unaffected, cheerful piety. On entering his room, we were struck at the appearance of an ample *Blackboard* suspended on the wall, with lumps of chalk on a ledge below, and cloths hanging at either side. I had never heard of such a thing before. There it was—forty-two years ago—that I first saw what now I trust is considered indispensable in every school—the blackboard—and there that I first witnessed the processes of analytical and inductive teaching. But what was better even than all that—it was there that I felt the quickening influence of kindness and gayety in a teacher. The bosom of Mr. Brosius was a well of benevolence. Little jets from that fountain were sparkling continually in his smiles, and playing from his lips, cheering and refreshing us in our severest efforts—making the two hours we spent daily with him, a recreation almost as much as a mental discipline. I longed to be myself, in the schools that I afterwards kept, as much like that excellent man, as my nature would allow me to be.

It soon became apparent to me that the School Fund in Connecticut had operated to depress rather than to elevate the public sentiment of education. If the spirit that prompted the people in 1795 to devote more than 1,200,000 dollars to the instruction of children, had been left to make continually renewed provision for that great interest, what improvements might not have been introduced in the course of thirty years. But, as I soon learned, the income of the fund being enough to pay all the teachers throughout the State, at *low* rates, their wages were fixed at those rates; and the people in most districts utterly refused to subscribe, or to be taxed to increase the compensation for teaching. Moreover, as the fountain whence the supply came, belonged alike to all, each man endeavored to get the accommodation of a puddle for his chickens as near as might be to his own door. A new district, therefore, was "set off," wherever the number of children in a neighborhood was large enough to give the pretext for one; and another subdivision of the income helped to keep the wages too low to command the services of competent teachers.

The average wages of male teachers in Connecticut in 1822, was twelve dollars a month. I knew some as low as six, and "boarding round," to use the familiar phrase, which meant that the teacher was to go from house to house in the district for his food and lodging, tarrying in each a proportionate number of days. As the old Indian said, when he dropped a cent into the contribution box—"poor preach, poor pay," so did I find the teachers in the Connecticut schools, with some admirable exceptions, worth no more than they received.

My associates on the committee were with me anxious for improvement. We determined that no candidate should receive our approbation, who did not

well understand at least the first elements of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and geography. Yet were we obliged to consent, that some should take charge of schools, who were very deficient in their knowledge of the last two named branches;* and to reject many because they were utterly ignorant of more. I well remember that one winter, for the nine schools in the small town where I lived, we rejected six out of fifteen applicants, because they did not understand notation and numeration; could not write correctly simple sentences of good English; and knew no more of the geography of the earth than of the Mecanique Celeste; and yet they had come to us well recommended, as having taught schools acceptably in other towns one, two and three winters.

The defects in the schools under our charge were deplorable. The reports that came from other towns, far and near, led us to the conclusion, that the condition of the common schools of Connecticut was generally no better; we therefore were impelled to do what we could to rouse the people from their insensibility to this most important social institution. Accordingly in the spring of 1826,† we issued a call for a convention "to consider the defects of our Common Schools; the causes of those defects; and the expedients by which they may be corrected." It was I believe the first meeting of the kind, held in our country since the commencement of the present century. Appended to the call were a dozen questions, the answers to which we hoped would bring us the information we desired to possess and which we intended to make public. More than a hundred delegates were present in that convention, representing more than twenty towns and five counties. Several valuable letters were received from gentlemen who could not attend in person. From these letters and from verbal and newspaper reports, we learned, that in other parts of the state, especially in Hartford, New Haven, Farmington and Wolcott, there were men of great intelligence and philanthropy rising up, with a power greater than ours, to improve and bless the common schools. There were Professors Olmsted and Kingsley of Yale College, Mr. William Russell of Farmington, two gentlemen in Wolcott, of whom I shall by and by speak more particularly, because they then came first to be known; and, more perhaps than all, the late most excellent Thomas H. Gallaudet, LL. D., the first principal of the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford. That gentleman not only gave every day, in his instruction of his pupils, remarkable illustrations of the true principles and some of the best methods of teaching, but he interested himself directly and heartily in the improvement of all schools.

By all the representations and appeals that came to them from the above named and other parts of the State, the ensuing Legislature (in May, 1826,) were prompted to send out a report ‡—I believe the first—conceding that the condition of the common schools was low, and that much ought to be done to improve them.

Early in 1827, a society was formed in Hartford "for the improvement of common schools." This did much to fix public attention upon the subject; to bring into coöperation the most earnest friends of the cause throughout the State; and to act effectively upon the legislators. Since that day the interest of the people and their rulers has not been suffered to die; until at length, under the lead and by the unremitted exertions of Henry Barnard, LL. D., one of the wisest and ablest of master builders, the system of common schools in Connecticut has come to be so much improved, that it need not shrink from a comparison with any other in our country.

---

* In several instances, the District Committee-man came to us with his teacher elect, saying "you need not examine him in grammar, or geography, for he does not understand this or that branch, and the District have voted not to have that branch taught in the school." Moreover, the authority of the Central Committee to dictate in what branches of knowledge any particular pupil should be instructed, was more than once strenuously controverted.

† I am quite sure this was the date of the first Convention, although I can not find a copy of the circular above referred to. There is now lying before me a copy of a circular by which a School Convention was called together March 5, 1827. But I have reason to believe that was the *second* of the series of conventions held annually, for several years, in Brooklyn, Connecticut, the town where I lived.

‡ The Report of the Committee on Education in the Legislature in 1826, as well as in 1828, was drawn up by Hawley Olmsted, then principal of a private school in Wilton.

In reply to a letter addressed to Rev. Mr. May for fuller information respecting the Convention of 1826 and the School men of Connecticut, with whom he was associated in the work of school improvement from 1823 to 1835, we received the following memoranda:—

The result of this important convention in 1826 was that it called the public attention throughout the state to the condition of the common schools, and showed them to be wholly inadequate to the thorough education of the young, and undeserving the reputation claimed for them abroad. A committee was appointed to prepare and publish a full report of the information communicated to the Convention, and of the suggestions made for the improvement of the schools.

Among the letters received in answer to ours that called the convention, was one from a gentleman who has since distinguished himself by his useful labors in the cause of education, Dr. William A. Alcott. He was then a practicing physician in the town of Wolcott. But he was becoming dissatisfied with his profession—was persuading himself that he could spend his time and talents to much better advantage in helping men to *form* their bodies and minds from the first aright, than to *reform* them when neglect and abuse had made them sick and vicious.

The principal object of his letter, however, was to make me acquainted with what he considered a school of remarkable excellence, kept in the town of Cheshire, by his kinsman and friend Mr. Amos Bronson Alcott. I was so deeply interested in his account of that school, that I wrote immediately to Mr. A. B. Alcott, begging him to favor me with a full detail of his principles and methods of teaching and governing children. In due time his elaborate answer came, and it gave so much evidence of deep insight into the theory and practice of educating the young, that I sent it forthwith to Mr. William Russell, who was then editing the Journal of Education, and he published it shortly after with high commendations. (Vol. III., pp. 26-86.)

My desire was great to know more of each of these remarkable men. In the summer of 1828, Mr. Alcott made me a visit of a week, and convinced me that he was a man like Pestalozzi. About that time a letter came to me from some benevolent ladies in Boston, who were undertaking to establish an infant school, inquiring for a suitable teacher for such a school. I felt no hesitation in commending Mr. A. B. Alcott to them as exactly what they needed. He went, and fully justified my commendations. A memoir of his life and labors, his principles and methods, I hope will ere long be given to the public in your Journal or elsewhere.*

A year or two afterwards Dr. W. A. Alcott also visited me, and was persuaded, I believe by what I said to him, to leave his profession and his home and remove to Boston. Thither he went with letters of introduction from me to Dr. Channing and others; and there and in the vicinity remained most of the time till his death, doing good services to the rising generation, that have been well reported in your Journal. (Vol. IV., p. 629.)

In 1827, I became acquainted with another valuable laborer in the cause of education, Josiah Holbrook. He spent several days with me; lectured in Brooklyn and the neighboring towns, and interested many people much in his proposed Lyceum. We established one in Brooklyn and kept it up several years with much spirit. In October, 1828, I delivered under the auspices of that institution a lecture on "*Errors in Common Education.*" It was immediately published in the Brooklyn newspaper and not long after was republished by Mr. Wm. Russell in his Journal of Education.

A year or two before the time at which I have now arrived in my narrative, I made an experiment with a very unruly school in Brooklyn—an experiment which I afterwards repeated in another place with equal success, and which went far to confirm me in the belief that female teachers can often, if not always, manage and instruct boys better than male teachers. One of the schools in Brooklyn had been very unmanageable for several winters; had actually driven off one of its teachers. In that predicament, I solicited Miss Ce-

* Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. XVI., p. 144.

cilia Williams (afterwards the wife of Rev. Charles Brooks,) to take charge of the school. She was a young lady of superior education and of ample fortune. But she was a Christian; she realized that she was not made for herself alone; she appreciated the importance of the work she was invited to undertake, and after a little hesitation, generously gave herself to it. The school was shortly reduced to exemplary order, without the use of any corporal punishment; a desire to learn was enkindled in the bosoms of the pupils, and in due time the school attained to a respectable rank among the schools of the town, which it was afterwards careful not to forfeit.

In 1834 I delivered the annual Derby Lecture in Hingham, Mass. A large portion of it was shortly afterwards published in the American Annals of Education.

In the fall of 1836, Mr. May removed to Plymouth County, Mass., and became pastor of the Congregational Church in South Scituate. Here he was made member of the Town School Committee, and continued his educational work, finding congenial spirits in the Rev. Charles Brooks in Hingham, and in Rev. Edward Q. Sewell in the adjoining parish of Scituate. The school-houses were improved, more female teachers were employed both in winter and summer, and several adjoining districts were consolidated so as to admit of a gradation of schools. In the spring of 1839 he made the opening of a new school-house the occasion for arresting public attention to the importance of these edifices to a successful system of common schools. Appropriate exercises were had, and he delivered an address which was published by Mr. Mann in the Mass. Common School Journal—one of the earliest of that class of Educational Addresses. In 1839 he coöperated in the work which Rev. C. Brooks commenced in 1835 (before the Board of Education was instituted,) to induce the people of Plymouth County to secure one of the Normal Schools for which the State had made provision in connection with the donation of Hon. Edmund Dwight. This was done by the establishment of the School at Bridgewater under Prof. Tillinghast, to whose many excellent qualities Mr. May paid a tribute in his Address in 1855.

In 1842, Mr. May succeeded Mr. Peirce in the principalship of the State Normal School at Lexington, and while there made special efforts to improve the methods of primary instruction both in the Model School and with his Normal pupils—giving prominence to realistic teaching, and to cultivating habits of observation, and the use of language in describing real objects. He prepared a Manual on the subject, which was unfortunately lost in the hands of the publishers, and was one of the earliest to introduce simple apparatus and articles of common use to illustrate certain principles of daily application—such as the standard weights and measures, steelyards, scales, balances, liquid and dry measures, yard stick, measuring tape, specimens of different colored paper, garden seeds, shells, &c. Here was a beginning of that system of teaching Common Things, for the encouragement of which among teachers in Great Britain Lord Ashburton established his famous Prize Scheme.

In 1845 Mr. May removed to Syracuse, to become pastor of the first Unitarian Church in that city, and there continued his educational work as opportunities presented.

SAMUEL READ HALL.

SAMUEL READ HALL, the founder of the first Teachers' Seminary in the United States, and a teacher of teachers from March, 1823, to May, 1840, was born in Croydon, New Hampshire, October 27, 1795. Trained in the exposures of frontier life, and with scanty school instruction, but with a diligent improvement of a few good books at home, he commenced his career as a teacher of district-schools in Rumford, Maine, in 1815, and from the start, signalized his career by the introduction of new methods and by unusual success in government and instruction. From 1818 to 1822, he attended the academy at North Bridgetown, Maine, and Plainfield, New Hampshire, teaching portions of the year, and always creating new interest by his improved methods, as well as by modifications of the usual routine of studies, such as exercises in original composition, the geography of the State, the history of the United States, and the elements of natural philosophy. After a brief course of theological study, Mr. Hall was licensed to preach, and commissioned by the Missionary Society of Vermont to labor in Concord. On the 23d of March, 1823, he was ordained pastor, and on the week following, he opened a seminary for the avowed purpose in part, "of instructing those who proposed to teach, and to illustrate the methods of teaching and governing by means of a class of young children, who were admitted to the school for this purpose." For this seminary he prepared a course of "Lectures on School Keeping," some of which were repeated elsewhere, and finally published in 1829, and of which an edition of ten thousand copies was circulated under legislative authority to every school-district in the State of New York. Here, in an obscure corner of Vermont, by a teacher, almost self-taught, self-prompted, and alone in planning it, was established the first Teachers' Seminary in the United States, who also made one of the earliest contributions to American Pedagogy. In our zeal to commemorate later and more conspicuous labors, let us not fail to do even tardy justice to this pioneer builder and workman of the great edifice of Professional Education.

The publication of his "Lectures on School Keeping," and the success of his private seminary for teachers, arrested the attention of the Trustees of Phillips Academy, and Mr. Hall was invited by them to take charge of the English Department of that academy, which they had decided to establish as a separate school, and in deference to the public opinion which had been created by the writings of Thomas H. Gallaudet, James G. Carter, and others, they had also determined to convert in part into a seminary for the education of teachers. Of this seminary he remained principal till 1837, when in the hope that a change of residence would be favorable to his failing health, he resigned to take charge of a new seminary of the same character at Plymouth, New Hampshire, which for two years was eminently successful as to pupils, (200 the first year, and 250 the second,) but owing to the commercial disasters of that period, its patrons were unable to continue the requisite aid, and the enterprise was abandoned in May, 1840. In the meantime, teachers and the friends of the professional training of teachers, instead of taking up the enterprise as one which came properly within the scope of individual and associated effort, left it to Legislatures to be incorporated into systems of public instruction. For fuller information respecting Rev. Mr. Hall's educational labors, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. V., p. 373.

REV. BENJAMIN ORR PEERS.

Rev. Benjamin Orr Peers, one of the pioneer laborers in the field of popular education, was born in Virginia in 1800, but removed with his father to Lexington, Kentucky, in 1808, where he received his education, graduating at Transylvania University in 1821. He commenced the study of theology at Princeton, but finished his course at Alexandria and was admitted to the order of Deacon in 1826. In the following year, having read and reflected much on the subject, he consecrated himself to the work of educational improvement, and opened a private school at Lexington, which in Oct., 1830, became known as the Eclectic Institute, in which he aimed "to embrace every thing comprehended in the most liberal collegiate education," "without regard to the source from which we may obtain them." The Scientific Department was called the *Rensellaerian*, and was adopted from Troy, N. Y. The Primary and English Department, called the *Pestalozzian*, was organized by Joseph Neff, a pupil and co-laborer of Pestalozzi; and the Third Department, to be called the *Humanitarian* and incorporating some of the studies and methods of Fellenberg, was never organized. This Institute was for a time quite successful and gave demonstrations of improved methods of teaching, but its expenses were large, and its aims were in advance of the public appreciation of the community in which it was located. In 1836, the enterprise was abandoned, and Mr. Peers accepted the presidency of the Transylvania University, which he resigned on accepting in 1838 the secretaryship of the Protestant Episcopal Sunday-School Union, and editorship of the Journal of Christian Education, which he conducted for four years, until his death on the 20th of August, 1842. Through the whole period of his active life Mr. Peers, by pen and voice and personal service, was a most efficient promoter of educational improvement. In 1828 he assisted in establishing the Lexington Mechanics' Institute, before which in 1820 he delivered the Introductory Lecture, which was published with copious extracts from Lord Brougham's *Observations on Popular Education*, and the publications of Gallaudet, Carter, and Clinton, on the importance of educating teachers, and appointing a well qualified State Superintendent of Education. He also took an active part in various educational conventions in Kentucky called under his auspices, and in the meetings of the Western College of Teachers.

In 1830 Mr. Peers, in pursuance of a request of the General Assembly "to communicate information respecting common schools which might aid the Legislature in adopting the best system for Kentucky," addressed a Letter which was published by order of the Legislature in a "Report of the Committee on Education" in that year, and widely circulated in that and other States. The Letter embodies the results of his personal visits to the schools and of his conferences with prominent teachers and public men in different parts of the country, and particularly in the States of New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and cites largely the opinions of Carter, Gallaudet, Flagg, Clinton, and others, as to the right use of School Funds, viz., to prepare and pay well qualified teachers, to stimulate local and parental effort, and to secure thorough and intelligent supervision. This document exerted great influence at the time through the West.

In 1832 Mr. Peers published a semi-monthly Journal of Education, edited by the Faculty of the Eclectic Institute, in the interests of his seminary, and to diffuse correct views of education and to stimulate teachers to self-improvement.

In 1838 Mr. Peers published a volume of 364 pages entitled "*American Education, or Strictures on the Nature, Necessity, and Practicability of a System of National Education suited to the United States,*" in which, after discussing and maintaining "the right of children to an education and the obligation of parents and of society to bestow it," he sets forth the essential features of a system, by which the several States can solve the grand problem of universal education. These features are (1) the religious training of every child in the cardinal truths of the Bible; (2,) the education of the intellectual faculties according to the laws of the mind and the future wants of individuals; (3, 4,) the regular and punctual attendance of every child at some good school, public or private, for a period of at least seven years; (5, 6,) the establishment of Seminaries and other agencies for the professional training of a sufficient number of teachers, and means for their comfortable accommodation and support; and (7) the supervision and general execution of the system by wise and energetic superintendence. The volume concludes with an eloquent "Appeal to the Clergy" to give their support to wise legislation in behalf of public schools, on the ground that the means at present relied on, viz., the Family, the Pulpit, the Sunday-Schools, and the Boarding-School, are altogether inadequate."

In becoming the Agent of the Sunday-School Union, and the Editor of the Journal of Christian Education, Mr. Peers did not abandon the ground which he had so strongly advocated in his American Education—of the necessity of more efficient legislation in every State to secure to every human being the opportunities of good physical, intellectual, and moral instruction. On this point, in the first number of his Journal, he devotes an article to Bishop Doane's "logical and spirited Appeal to the People of New Jersey on the most important subject that can occupy the attention of a Legislature." "Its doctrines are of the grandest practical moment. It assumes that knowledge is the universal right of man, and that the security of this inherent right to every individual; and its extension, in the fullest measure, to the greatest number, is the universal interest of man; and that it is the duty of every free State to provide for the education of her children. Tax yourselves for the support of Common Schools and you will never be in danger of taxation from a foreign power—you will need less taxation for the support of pauperism and the punishment of crime. The Common Schools are in the place to us of arms, and troops, and fleets. They are our nurseries of men. They are indeed 'the cheap defense of nations.'" "So long as Sunday-Schools shall act in harmony with the scheme of religious education prescribed by God and recognized by the Church, so long as they shall perform the office of auxiliary, not a substitute—a part, not an independent system—so long will they deserve the practical encouragement."

In an elaborate Report to the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, at its session in New York in October, 1841, Mr. Peers submitted a scheme of Christian Education, which contemplates the bringing up of all the children properly belonging to each parish in the nurture and admonition of the Lord. To this end the Parish Minister, Fathers and Mothers, Masters and Mistresses, by catechetical instruction on Sundays, by family worship, and timely admonition, and constant example, and by the Parochial School, must train up children of the Church in the way they should go.

I. ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

FEW even of the older States of the Union have an educational history more rich, varied, and instructive than that of Illinois. When that history shall be written and due honor shall be given to those who have, within two score years, raised the State to the high position which she now holds, worthy mention shall be made of that association of young men, seven in number, who, early in 1829, while pursuing their studies in Yale College, devoted themselves to a life-work in the cause of education and religion in the then new State of Illinois. The names of these seven were Mason Grosvenor, Theron Baldwin, John F. Brooks, Elisha Jenney, William Kirby, Asa Turner, and Julian M. Sturtevant. The first fruits of their exertions was the establishment of Illinois College in 1829, at Jacksonville, which has ever since been a center of right influence for the whole State. The after-fruits of their united and individual action and influence in behalf of education, both general and special, and by no means confined to the one State of Illinois, can not be estimated—indeed, are not yet ended.

In the progress of the Lyceum movement, originated by Josiah Holbrook in 1828, a "*State Lyceum*" was organized at Vandalia on the 10th of Dec., 1831, before which a course of lectures was delivered in the following May by Judge James Hall, Jeremiah Abbott, W. Brown, and W. L. D. Erving. Like most of these institutions, it probably soon became extinct. Less imposing in its pretensions, but more effective, has been a State society formed in Jacksonville, in 1833, and styled the "*Ladies' Association for Educating Females*," which is still in existence and in active operation. Its principal object has been to encourage and assist young women in procuring an education and fitting themselves for usefulness, and it is expected that most of those thus assisted will become teachers, at least for a time, though no engagement to do so is required. More than seven hundred young ladies have been educated by its instrumentality. The character of its work can not be better described than in the

words of one of its founders:—"Silent, catholic, economical, and persevering, it has been so Christ-like in its labors that the world has never known and could not stop to read its history. Its anniversaries have been simple exponents of an institution partaking so little of the spirit of the world. No noise or parade, but a plain statement of its labors, expenditures, and successes. Its history is written in the heart of many a missionary, toiling in obscure indigence; it is written, too, in the heart of the orphan and the poor, who, by its timely aid, have been able to break the fetters by which poverty held back their aspirations for knowledge; it will be read in the ages to come, in the light of heaven." Among the earliest officers of the Institution were Mrs. John Tillson, *President.* Miss S. C. Crocker, *Vice-President.* Mrs. T. Baldwin, *Secretary;* and Mrs. H. Batchelder, *Treasurer.*

The first Educational Convention was held at Vandalia, Feb. 13th, 1833, by gentlemen from different parts of the State desirous of encouraging education and especially common schools. After an address on education by James Hall, Esq., an Association was organized under the title of the "*Illinois Institute of Education.*" An effort was made to procure statistics and information in regard to schools and the condition of education, but with what success and whether any subsequent meetings were held, does not appear.

A second Convention was held at Vandalia, Dec. 5th and 6th, 1834, at which sixty delegates were present from over thirty counties of the State, principally members of the General Assembly then in session, among whom were Abraham Lincoln, Stephen A. Douglas, and others whose names became afterwards well known in the State. Hon. Cyrus Edwards was chosen President, and Stephen A. Douglas, Secretary. An address to the people was drawn up by a committee of which William Brown, of Jacksonville, was chairman, and also a memorial to the Legislature, by a committee consisting of Messrs. J. J. Hardin, J. M. Peck, Benj. Mills, W. Brown, D. Baker, Alfred Cowles, and Henry Moore. Through the influence of this Convention some important changes were effected in the previous school laws of 1825, 1829, and 1833. No farther general effort at improvement was made for several years. In January, 1837, the first educational periodical in the State was established at Jacksonville, styled the "*Common School Advocate,*" and continued through the first volume, under the direction of Rev. Theron Baldwin.

In February, 1841, was formed the "*Illinois State Education Society*" at Springfield, "to promote, by all laudable means, the

diffusion of knowledge in regard to education; and, especially, to endeavor to render the system of common schools throughout the State as perfect as possible." Its first officers were—Hon. Cyrus Edwards, *Pres.* Col. Thos. Mather, Hon. William Thomas, Hon. S. H. Treat, Dr. W. B. Eagan, and Onslow Peters, *Vice-Pres.* Pres. J. W. Merril, Prof. Newman, Peter Acres, D. D., J. W. Jenks, and Hon. W. Brown, *Directors.* A. T. Bledsoe and C. R. Welles, *Sec.;* and P. C. Canedy, *Treas.* A memorial was prepared and presented to the Legislature then in session, urging the appointment of a State School Superintendent, and other amendments to the school system. A new school law was passed, which, however, embraced but few of the desired improvements. The publication of a school journal was again attempted under the auspices of this Society, called the "*Illinois Common School Advocate,*" Edmund R. Wiley, publisher. It was continued from May to September, 1841. Among the measures advocated by it was the formation of "Teachers' Associations."

Another effort was made by the friends of popular education to secure, through the Legislature of 1843, the establishment of the office of Superintendent of Schools, which had become now to be regarded as essential to a comprehensive system of public instruction. Petitions in this behalf were widely circulated for signatures, but it was found that the people generally were themselves opposed to the change, chiefly on the ground of supposed expense, and consequently nothing was done by the Legislature, though Pres. Sturtevant delivered several lectures at the capital upon the need and practicability of more efficient supervision. Notwithstanding this ill success, it was believed by many that the time was ripe for the proposed measure, and that a general convention should be called together of the right men, not for investigation and discussion merely, but to devise a system of common schools that might be recommended with confidence to the succeeding Legislature. Such a suggestion was made in May, 1844, by J. S. Wright, editor of the "*Prairie Farmer,*" in which able and widely circulated agricultural paper an "Education Department" had been commenced in March, 1843, for correspondence and interchange of views upon educational topics. The proposition was very favorably received and an appointment was made for a convention of delegates, teachers, and friends of education to meet at Peoria, Oct. 9th, 1844.

The Convention was not largely attended, but was unanimous in favor of a State superintendency and taxation for the support of schools. A plan of a school system was drawn up, and a long and

able memorial to the Legislature prepared by a committee consisting of Messrs. J. S. Wright, Secretary of the Convention, Rev. Mr. Pinckney, and H. M. Wead. The proposed bill was explained and sustained by J. S. Wright before the legislative committees. The result was a general revision of the School Laws, and the passage of an Act making the Secretary of State *ex-officio* Superintendent of Schools, authorizing special taxation for school purposes, and introducing other decided improvements upon the former system. Committees were also appointed by the Convention to make arrangements for a "Teachers' Convention" at Jacksonville, June 26th, 1845, and to there report a series of text-books for common schools and academies. A call was afterwards issued for a Common School Convention of teachers and others, to meet at Springfield on the 9th of January, 1845, "for the purpose of organizing a State Education Society, and for adopting such other measures as may seem best calculated to increase the interest in common schools and give efficiency to the laws respecting them." Both of these meetings were held, but we have no report of their proceedings.

In accordance with an appointment made by the Convention which met at Jacksonville in June, 1845, a committee, consisting of Messrs. G. M. Meeker, William Jones, and W. H. Brown, issued a circular calling a General Common School Convention, to meet at Chicago, Oct. 8th, 1846. The invitation was extended to the friends of education generally throughout the West, and the programme of exercises included addresses from Henry Barnard, and other educators from the East, and essays from J. M. Sturtevant, W. H. Williams, Francis Springer, Prof. J. B. Turner, A. W. Henderson, Rev. C. E. Blood, J. S. Wright, William Brown, and T. M. Post. One of the most important results was the formation of the "*North-Western Educational Society*" contemplating a union in the efforts of the friends of education in all the Western States for mutual benefit and improvement, and which subsequently held annual meetings at Milwaukee and Detroit.. At the close of the Convention, a "Teachers' Institute," the first in the State, was organized and continued in session several days.

The earliest Teachers' Association of which we find mention was the "*Franklin Association of Common School Teachers*," for the counties of Greene, Jersey, Macoupin, and Madison, organized Oct. 2d, 1845, with the following officers:—Rev. L. S. Williams, *Pres.* Rev. H. Loomis, William Tryon, L. S. Norton, and Rev. O. Cooley, *Vice-Pres.*; and C. L. Bacon, *Treas.* The Kane County Educational Association was formed in January, 1847,—the Du Page

County Educational Society, and Circulating School Library, in June, 1847. The next recorded are the Teachers' Associations of Ogle and Kane counties, formed in 1850. The earliest County "Teachers' Institute" that appears on record is that of Ottawa county, in October, 1849.

An Educational Convention met "according to appointment" in Springfield, Dec. 16th, 17th, 19th, and 23d, 1846, with delegates from twenty-eight counties. Hon. John Dougherty was President; J. B. Watson and D. M. Kelsey, Secretaries. Various topics of educational interest were discussed and a committee instructed to memorialize the Legislature for amendments to the School Law, and especially for making the School Superintendency a distinct office, to be filled by the Legislature. A resolution was also adopted favoring the organization of a State Education Society, but no steps seem to have been taken towards effecting it, nor any other convention held until 1849. A convention then met at Springfield, January 15th to 18th, during the session of the Legislature; Hon. J. B. Thomas, President, and William Bross, Secretary. A committee was appointed to prepare a memorial to the Legislature and draft a bill for a school law that should embrace the following principles:—That the property of the State should be taxed to educate the children of the State; that the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction should be separate and distinct from every other office; that the County Commissioners should receive a reasonable compensation for their services as *ex-officio* County Superintendents of Schools; and that a portion of the College and Seminary Funds should be devoted to aid in the education of common school teachers. These several principles were now for the first time pressed upon the attention of the Legislature, but though the School Law was revised at this session, the system was left essentially as before.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION CONVENTIONS.

In 1851 commenced a series of conventions in behalf of industrial institutions, which excited much attention, originated the movement which resulted in the subsequent donation of lands by Congress to the several States for the benefit of Agricultural Colleges, and prepared the way for the formation of the State Teachers' Association and the establishment of the Normal University. The first of these conventions was held at Granville, Nov. 8th, 1851, and was composed of members of the industrial classes of the State, actively and personally engaged in agricultural and mechanical pursuits. The principal subject of consideration was the want of industrial schools,

and resolutions were passed approving of immediate measures for the establishment of a University to meet the wants of the industrial classes of the State, and of high schools, lyceums, institutes, &c., of a similar character in each county, and it was proposed to apply to the Legislature for the appropriation to this purpose of the University Fund of the State instead of its division among the different colleges, as contemplated by those institutions. Prof. J. B. Turner, of Jacksonville, submitted a plan of such a University, in which the specific education of common school teachers was made a primary feature, and the University and Seminary Funds of the State the principal early reliance, and thus a central point to be established to which large grants of public lands might be attracted and whence the system might be extended to all the States of the Union.

The second Convention was held at Springfield, June 8th, 1852; Dr. J. A. Kennicott, President; J. T. Little and Joseph Morgan, Vice-Presidents; and W. H. Powell, Secretary. Prof. Turner stated the outlines of his plan for an Industrial University, which was sustained by J. T. Little, Mr. Lumsden, Prof. Wood, and others, and vigorously opposed by Prof. Evans, Dr. Roe, and Prof. Cummings, who, as representatives of the colleges, maintained that they should be made the agency for the application of the funds of the State to the education of the industrial classes. The debate resulted in the appointment of J. B. Turner, John Hise, Oake Turner, J. T. Little, and Aug. Adams, as a committee to memorialize the Legislature for the establishment of an Industrial University.

The third Convention met at Chicago, Nov. 24th, 1852; Bronson Murray, President; Ira Potter, J. A. Kennicott, and J. Davis, Vice-Presidents; J. F. Dagget and Charles Kennicott, Secretaries. The "*Illinois State Industrial League*" was organized, of which J. B. Turner was elected Principal Director, and John Gage, B. Murray, Dr. L. S. Pennington, J. T. Little, and W. A. Pennell, Assistant Directors. Prof. Turner's plan was again discussed and its general principles approved, though the admission of a "Classical Department" was strongly and decidedly objected to. It was agreed that the proposed University should be for the education of both sexes, and manual labor was recognized as a necessary and honorable element in its plan. Mr. Gage argued at length in favor of making the phonetic system an essential element in the course of instruction. J. B. Turner, William Gooding, and Dr. J. A. Kennicott were appointed to more fully digest the plan of the institution in accordance with the general principles expressed by the Convention, to be submitted to the next meeting and also laid before the Legislature;

and Gov. A. C. French, Hon. David L. Gregg, and Dr. L. S. Pennington were made a committee to petition Congress for a grant of public lands for the establishment and endowment of Industrial Institutions in each and every State in the Union—a department for the education of common school teachers being made an essential feature of the plan.

The fourth Convention was held at Springfield, January 4th, 1853—Bronson Murray, President. Under the discussions of this meeting, which were participated in with the deepest interest by many of the members of the Legislature and executive officers of the State, the views and actions of the members assumed a more decided shape. A memorial was drawn up by W. F. M. Arny, of Bloomington, which, together, with the similar memorial of the committee of the previous year, was presented to the Legislature. A joint resolution was unanimously adopted by that body, instructing and requesting the Senators and Representatives of the State in Congress "to use their best exertions to procure the passage of a law of Congress donating to each State in the Union an amount of Public Lands not less in value than $500,000, for the liberal endowment of a system of Industrial Universities, one in each State in the Union, to coöperate with each other and with the Smithsonian Institute at Washington, for the more liberal and practical education of our industrial classes and their teachers." The Governor was also instructed to forward copies of the resolution to the Executive and Legislature of each of the other States. Though not immediately successful, yet the movement finally resulted in the passage of the Act of Congress of July, 1862, making liberal appropriations of lands "to the States establishing colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts."

The fifth and last Industrial Convention was held at Springfield, in January, 1855; John Gates was elected President; Uriah Mills and H. C. Johns, Vice-Presidents; W. F. M. Arny and C. W. Webster, Secretaries. Addresses were delivered by Dr. R. C. Rutherford, on "*Industrial Education as Advocated by the Industrial League;*" by Bronson Murray, on "*Practical Education;*" by Prof. Adams, on the "*True Philosophy of General and Universal Education;*" and by Prof. Daniels, of Wisconsin. Messrs. Rutherford, Mills, and Swan were appointed a committee to report the general heads of a plan for the establishment of a State University, and reported in substance that the first departments instituted in such institution should be a Normal School Department, a Department of Practical and Scientific Agriculture, a Department of Prac-

tical and Scientific Mechanics, and a Commercial Department. The report was adopted and a committee appointed to confer with the legislative committees upon the subject. J. B. Turner, B. Murray, W. A. Pennell, H. Johns, J. A. Kennicott, and Uriah Mills were appointed to draft a bill for the establishment of a University and urge its passage by the Legislature. A memorial was accordingly presented and a bill submitted, which received favorable consideration from the Senate committee but was postponed to another session.

STATE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE AND ASSOCIATION.

On the 26th of December, 1853, there was convened at Bloomington an Educational Convention, composed more strictly of teachers, superintendents and commissioners of schools, and other friends of popular education. The circular, calling the meeting, was signed by the Secretary of State, as State Superintendent, the Presidents and Professors of Shurtleff College and of the Illinois Wesleyan University, the President of Knox College, and a large number of other prominent teachers, schoolmen, and ministers. The Convention was organized by the election of the following officers:—D. Brewster, *Pres.* Prof. W. Goodfellow, Prof. A. J. Sawyer, and C. F. Loop, *Vice-Pres.* W. H. Powell and H. S. Lewis, *Sec.* The principal subjects discussed were the establishment of a State Normal School, the establishment of an educational paper, and the organization of a Teachers' Institute. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Goodfellow, H. H. Lee, and Dr. E. R. Roe—the latter, upon "*Geology.*" Committees were appointed to petition the Legislature for a State Superintendent of Schools, for the establishment and support of a Normal School, and for a School System without taxation; the Constitution of a State Teachers' Institute was drawn up and adopted; the usefulness of an educational journal was recognized, and a committee chosen to provide for its publication, should they deem it advisable.

The office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction was created by the next Legislature, and Hon. N. W. Edwards was appointed by the Governor to the position, until his successor should be elected.

After the adjournment of the Convention, the STATE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE OF ILLINOIS was fully organized by the election of the following officers:—Rev. W. Goodfellow, *Pres.* Rev. H. Spalding, Thomas Powell, and C. C. Bonney, *Vice-Pres.* Rev. D. Wilkins, *Rec. Sec.* H. O. Snow, H. L. Lewis, and C. W. Hartshorn, *Cor.*

Sec. Prof. C. W. Sears, *Treas.* Lucius Loring, Prof. D. Wilkins, and E. Brewster, *Ex. Com.*—also Standing Committees on Books and Libraries, on Government and Discipline, and on Exercises.

First Annual Meeting.—At Peoria, Dec. 26th, 1854—W. H. Powell acting as President. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Charles Davies, on "*School Education;*" by N. W. Edwards, on a "*School Law for Illinois;*" and by Prof. J. B. Turner, Dr. R. C. Rutherford, and Dr. Calvin Cutter. A prominent subject before the Institute was the establishment of the "*Illinois Teacher,*" which was finally determined upon, and a committee appointed to make the necessary arrangements. Its publication was commenced in February, 1855, under the chief editorship of W. F. M. Arny, and has been since continued with various changes in the direction and management. A discussion was held upon the subject of the co-education of the sexes, and resolutions were passed approving of it through all grades of schools. Resolutions were also passed in favor of vocal music in schools; condemning the scheme of the State Superintendent, authorizing him to prescribe and enforce a system of text-books; favoring the support of schools by a direct *ad valorem* tax; recommending the application of the University and Seminary Fund, to the establishment of a State University and Normal School; and in favor of a uniformity of text-books. The following officers were elected:—W. H. Powell, *Pres.* N. Bateman, H. H. Haff, and O. C. Blackner, *Vice-Pres.* Y. C. Burchard, Prof. S. Wright, C. E. Hovey, and A. A. Trimmer, *Sec.* Onslow Peters, *Treas.* Bronson Murray, G. W. Minier, and Prof. S. Wright, *Ex. Com.* An act of incorporation was granted to the Society by the following Legislature.

Second Annual Meeting.—At Springfield, Dec. 26th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by N. W. Edwards, on the "*Common Schools, the School Law, and a Normal School;*" by Prof. J. B. Turner, on a "*Normal School,*" followed by Mr. Edwards and Mr. Leach upon the same subject; by Prof. N. Bateman, on "*Popular Fallacies in Teaching;*" by Pres. J. M. Sturtevant, on the "*Utility of the Study of the Classics;*" by W. H. Powell, on the "*Support of the Common Schools, necessary to the Public Good;*" and by Prof. Akers. An interesting report was made by N. Bateman, on "*School Government,*" which gave rise to a warm debate. Discussions also followed upon the subject of Pres. Sturtevant's discourse, upon several points of the School Law, and other minor questions. The title of the Institute was changed to "*The Illinois Teachers' Association,*" and other changes were made in the Constitution,

constituting the President and nine Vice-Presidents a "State Board of Education," and the Corresponding Secretary a "State Agent," with a salary of $1,200. A committee was appointed to petition the Legislature in behalf of County Institutes, and the "Illinois Teacher." The following officers were elected:—C. E. Hovey, *Pres.* N. Bateman, *Cor. Sec.* N. Bateman, B. G. Roots, and T. W. Bruce, *Ex. Com.* C. E. Hovey, *Editor.* Prof. N. Bateman and W. H. Powell were nominated as first and second choice of the Association, and recommended to the consideration of the people, as candidates for the office of State Superintendent.

Mr. Powell was elected, and Mr. Bateman succeeded him at the expiration of his term. A number of County "Teachers' Institutes" had already been formed, of which the earliest was that of Lee county, in 1854, followed by Whiteside, Tazewell, Ogle, and others. In the two following years, through the efforts of the State Agent and other influences, they increased more rapidly and were over fifty in number at the close of 1858.

Third Annual Meeting.—At Chicago, Dec. 22d, 1856. In point of attendance, talent, importance of subjects presented and ability shown in discussion, this meeting ranks among the first which the Association has ever held. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Longley, on "*Phonetics;*" by W. H. Wells, on the "*Science of Teaching;*" by C. E. Hovey, on the "*History of the Illinois Teacher;*" by N. Bateman, on the "*Justice of a School Law based upon an* ad valorem *Tax;*" by Henry Barnard, on the "*Duty of the State to Schools;*" and by C. M. Cady, on "*Music as a Department of Education..*" Essays were read by W. H. Haskell, on the "*Duties of County Commissioners;*" by H. O. Wright, on the "*Compensation of Teachers;*" by C. B. Smith, on "*Public and Private Schools compared;*" and by J. F. Benson, on "*Who should be Teachers?*" Reports were also presented by J. A. Sewell, on "*Gymnastic Exercises;*" by T. J. Conatty, on the "*Self-reporting System;*" by C. Nye, on "*Tools and Instruments, or the True Use of Text-Books;*" and by D. S. Wentworth, on "*School Government.*"

The Report of C. E. Hovey, in behalf of the Board of Education, gave rise to a lengthened discussion, and resolutions were passed recommending the appropriation by the Legislature of a sum sufficient to establish and support a Normal School; the change, where desired, from the District, to the Township system; the increase of the salaries of County Commissioners, and empowering them to cancel the certificates of teachers for due cause. The following officers were elected:—Simeon Wright, *Pres.* Dr. C. C. Hoagland,

Cor. Sec. C. E. Hovey, *Ed.* D. S. Wentworth, J. L. Hodges and J. Stone, Jr., *Ex. Com.* Liberal subscriptions were made to the "Teacher," and the meeting closed with a social gathering, attended with more than ordinary spirit and enjoyment.

In February, 1857, the Legislature passed an act "for the establishment and maintenance of a Normal University"—making appropriation from the University and Seminary Fund, for its support, but nothing for the purchase of site or buildings. Bloomington contributed $150,000 for these purposes, C. E. Strong was appointed Principal, and instruction commenced in the October following.

Fourth Annual Meeting.—At Decatur, Dec. 28th, 1857. Addresses were delivered by S. Wright; by E. L. Youmans, on the "*Chemistry of the Sunbeam;*" by Dr. C. C. Hoagland, on "*School Supervision;*" by Prof. Tillinghast, on "*Teaching Vocal Music in Schools;*" by Prof. R. Edwards, on "*Normal Schools;*" by Dr. E. R. Roe, on "*Education of the Body;*" and by Pres. Blanchard, on the "*Vocation of the Teacher.*" Essays were read by Miss H. P. Young, on "*Primary Instruction;*" by Rev. U. S. Post, on the "*Relation of Parents, Teacher, and Pupils;*" by Prof. C. D. Wilbur, on the "*Lead Mines of Galena;*" and by Prof. O. Springstead, on "*Oral Instruction.*" Discussions were held on the "*Furnishing Pupils Gratuitously with Books,*" and on the "*Co-education of the Sexes.*" The Report of the Board of Education gave rise to resolutions establishing the office of State Agent; recommending the organization of Teachers' Institutes and the formation of School Libraries; favoring the equal compensation of male and female teachers, and a system of graded certificates; and urging greater attention to the subject of physical culture. A committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an appropriation for preparing and distributing to each township a work upon School Architecture. A communication was received from C. Thomas on the practical study of the Natural History of Illinois and the foundation of a Natural History Society in connection with the Normal School—which was approved by the Association. Provision was made for securing the salary of the State Agent—$1,200 and expenses—and a subscription of 1,885 copies of the "Teacher" was pledged, (which pledges remained, generally, unfulfilled.) The following officers were elected:—B. G. Roots, *Pres.* Dr. Hurd, M. Tabor, J. V. N. Standish, O. Springstead, Jon Shastid, H. Spalding, S. P. Read, Ezra Jenkins, and W. Cunningham, *Vice-Pres.* S. Wright, *State Agent.* J. F. Eberhart and T. J. Conatty, *Sec.* N. Bateman, *Ed.*

The attendance was larger than ever before, and much enthusiasm was manifested.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Galesburg, Dec. 28th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by Prof. S. S. Hammill, on "*Elocution;*" by Pres. Harvey Curtis, on the "*Various School Systems;*" by Prof. J. B. Turner, on "*Reading;*" by Prof. J. F. Brooks, on "*Phonetics;*" by Prof. J. Haven, on the "*Model Teacher;*" and by A. C. Spencer, on "*Penmanship.*" Essays were read by S. A. Briggs, on "*Recitations;*" by Mrs. H. Mitchell, on the "*Mental Influence of Science;*" by Willard Woodard, on "*School Management;*" and by Miss H. M. Culver, on "*Some of the Things we Teach Children.*" A discussion was held upon the subject of Union Graded Schools; but the most prominent subject before the Association was the best mode of management of the "Illinois Teacher." The debate was warm and excited, and resulted in so altering the constitution as to release the Association from all responsibility for or interest in its publication. The "Teacher" was still continued by its former publishers and recognized as the organ of the State Department, was enlarged, and has since ranked high among the similar publications of the country.

Reports were read by J. H. Blodgett, on "*Teaching as a Profession;*" and by Prof. Wilbur, on the "Illinois Natural History Society," which had been commenced at the previous meeting, but was not fully organized until June, 1858. The following officers were elected:—William H. Haskell, *Pres.* J. F. Woodworth, W. Woodard, C. P. Allen, J. E. Harroun, W. A. Chamberlin, L. M. Cutcheon, M. S. Beckwith, J. Newman, and H. W. Dyer, *Vice-Pres.* Ira Moore and S. M. Etter, *Sec.* The attendance was very large, exceeding six hundred.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Ottawa, Dec. 27th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Rev. Edward Beecher, on "*Mind;*" by Rev. F. S. Waldo; and by Rev. D. F. Wallace. Essays were read by J. H. Blodgett, on the "*Teacher's Profession;*" by Miss C. M. Gregory, on the "*Teacher's Field of Labor;*" by P. D. Hammond, on the "*Influence of the Personal Character of the Teacher;*" by Rev. C. Foote, on "*Discipline;*" and by S. M. Cutcheon, on "*School Martyrs.*" Reports were made by B. G. Roots, on the "*Use of the Bible in School;*" and by A. H. Fitch, on "*Reform Schools*"—both of which gave rise to long and earnest debates. The first resulted in the passage of a resolution, "that we recommend the reading of the Bible, without note or comment, in all our schools." The discussion upon Reform Schools elicited accounts

of the true condition of the Chicago Reform School, and the conviction that the system of moral suasion alone is not sufficient for the government of such an institution. The report of a committee on "*Teaching a Recognized Profession*," brought on a discussion which indicated a decided opinion that teachers alone should be made judges of the qualifications of candidates for teaching, and the subject was referred to a special committee. A committee was also appointed to report facts and statistics showing the importance and necessity of State aid to counties in the organization and conducting of Teachers' Institutes. The subject of Teachers' Institutes was debated at length, and it was stated that thirty counties were sustaining them. The following officers were elected:—J. V. N. Standish, *Pres.* G. G. Lyon, W. S. Wood, M. O'Connor, H. A. Calkins, W. M. Baker, B. R. Hawley, George Bragdon, and J. B. Parker, *Vice-Pres.* W. Woodard and G. G. Alvord, *Sec.* N. Woodworth, *Treas.*

In connection with this meeting, an "Association of School Commissioners and Superintendents" was temporarily organized on the 29th of Dec., 1859, by the appointment of Wells Wait, President, and S. M. Cutcheon, Secretary.

Seventh Annual Meeting.—At Quincy, Dec. 26th, 1860. Addresses were delivered by Prof. J. V. N. Standish; by Prof. S. A. Welch, on the "*Natural System of Education;*" by N. Bateman, on "*Amendments to the School Law;*" and by Hon. J. M. Gregory, on "*Education, the Business of Life.*" Essays were read by Miss Agnes Manning, on "*Primary Teaching;*" by Rev. L. P. Clover, on "*Drawing, as connected with the Common and Higher Pursuits of Life;*" by A. M. Gow, on "*Natural History in Schools;*" and by Rev. J. S. Poage, on "*Moral Courage essential to the Scholar.*" Interesting discussions were held upon the subject of "*Graded Schools,*" and upon "*Object Teaching.*"

The following officers were elected:—W. H. Wells, *Pres.* George Hicks, A. M. Gow, L. H. Cheney, J. S. Poage, J. G. Marchant, C. H. Flower, John Hull, M. V. B. Shattuck, and B. G. Roots, *Vice-Pres.* S. A. Briggs and W. A. Chamberlin, *Sec.*

Eighth Annual Meeting.—At Bloomington, Dec. 26th, 1861. Addresses were given by Pres. Wells, on the "*History of Education;*" by Rev. Dr. J. M. Sturtevant, on "*Female Education;*" by Prof. J. B. Turner, on "*Teaching Chemistry in Common Schools;*" by C. H. Allen, on "*Teachers' Institutes;*" and by Hon. J. L. Pickard, on "*Common Schools.*" Essays were read by Miss C. L. Stocking, on the "*Importance of History in Common Schools;*" by

Miss Fanny Marshall, on "*Teaching Geography;*" by W. M. Baker, on "*Graded Schools;*" and by James Johonnot, on "*Methods in Study.*" Drill exercises were also held in reading, map-drawing, gymnastics, and book-keeping. The principal discussions were upon the subject of "*Free Public High Schools,*" and "*Teachers' Institutes.*" A resolution was passed in approval of the object system of teaching as pursued at the Oswego Public School, N. Y. A series of patriotic resolutions were also presented and unanimously adopted. Officers elected:—W. M. Baker, *Pres.* J. B. Kerr, H. S. Hyatt, F. Rowe, A. F. Waterman, N. A. Prentiss, H. L. Field, T. N. McCorkle, J. P. Slade, and B. G. Roots, *Vice-Pres.* E. L. Clark and S. H. White, *Sec.* J. D. Parker, *Treas.*

The Illinois Natural History Society, through the efforts of its originator and secretary, C. D. Wilber, had now established a museum at Bloomington, which was dedicated during the session of the Association. The State Board of Examiners, created by the Legislature at its previous session, also held their first session on the 27th of December, and awarded their first diplomas to eighteen out of twenty-three candidates examined.

Ninth Annual Meeting.—At Rockford, Dec. 31st, 1862. Addresses were delivered by G. C. Clarke, on the "*Friendships of Literary Men;*" by Richard Edwards, on "*National Welfare as dependent upon Universal Education;*" by C. D. Wilber, on the "*Natural Resources of the West;*" by A. S. Welch, on "*Object Teaching;*" by A. M. Gow, on "*Compulsory Attendance;*" by Hon. N. Bateman, on the "*Chief End of Common Schools, and its more Effectual Attainment;*" by W. H. Wells, on "*Orthoëpy and its Representatives;*" by Prof. J. J. Blaisdell, on "*Dr. Arnold as a Teacher;*" and by Prof. J. D. Butler, on "*Commonplace Books.*" Essay by A. A. Griffith, on "*Reading.*" Drill exercises were held in History, by W. Woodard; in Grammar, by Isaac Stone; in Map-drawing, by E. C. Hewitt; on Color, by A. S. Welch; in Music, by W. Tillinghast; and in Gymnastics, by G. H. Haskell. Discussions were had upon the "*Best Method of Teaching Beginners to Read,*" and on "*Object Teaching.*" Officers elected:—Hon. N. Bateman, *Pres.* W. Woodard, Alex. Kerr, Stern Rogers, D. W. Evans, G. G. Alvord, Francis Hanford, Z. Truesdell, E. C. Hewitt, E. B. Leonard, C. E. Foote, A. W. Mace, O. S. Cook, and L. H. Roots, *Vice-Pres.* W. W. Davis and A. M. Gow, *Sec.*

Tenth Annual Meeting.—At Springfield, Dec. 29th, 1863. Addresses by Pres. Bateman, on "*The Association—its History and Aims;*" by Hon. J. P. Brooks, State Superintendent, on the "*Ma-*

terial Value of Education;" by W. Woodard, on the "*Elements of Power;*" by George Howland, on the "*Courtesies of the School-room;*" and by Rev. Robert Allyn, on "*Character in a Teacher better than Attainments.*" Discussions were also held upon the introduction of scientific musical instruction, and of the phonetic system into schools—upon the best time for commencing grammar—the necessary qualifications of teachers—and the courtesies of the school-room. Essays were read by Miss R. F. Beecher, on the "*Study of our Language;*" by W. W. Davis, on "*Composition;*" by J. J. Noble, on "*Mental Arithmetic;*" and by J. P. Slade, on "*Success in Teaching.*" Reports were received from Prof. Edwards upon the "*Normal University;*" from J. F. Eberhart, on "*School Visitation,*" and "*Institutes;*" and from A. M. Gow, on "*Compulsory Attendance.*" Practical exercises were also conducted by E. C. Delano, in a model object lesson; by Prof. A. A. Smith, in elocution; by A. Stetson, in free gymnastics; and by Prof. Edwards, in reading. The principal feature of the session was the discussion upon the subject of a system of State Institutes in connection with the Normal University; a plan was matured, and a committee appointed to memorialize the Legislature for its embodiment into the School Law. Officers elected:—R. Edwards, *Pres.* G. Howland, M. Andrews, Morris Savage, J. M. Gow, G. G. Alvord, P. P. Heywood, T. R. Leal, Lucius Kingsbury, Jon Shastid, O. S. Cook, J. M. Pace, J. A. Hamilton, and P. K. Roots, *Vice-Pres.* S. M. Etter and S. A. Briggs, *Sec.*

Eleventh Annual Meeting.—At Monmouth, Dec. 27th, 1864. Addresses were delivered by George Howland, on "*Horace and his Times;*" by Pres. Edwards, on "*What shall we do next?*" by Dr. John S. Hart, on "*Normal Schools,*" and on the "*English Language;*" and by Prof. J. V. N. Standish, on "*Railroads to Knowledge.*" Essays were read by F. Hanford, on the "*Responsibilities of Citizenship;*" by M. V. B. Shattuck, on "*Heart Culture;*" by S. H. White, on "*Thought Culture;*" by G. P. Beard, on "*The Recitation;*" and by Prof. E. C. Hewett, on "*History in Schools.*" Class exercises were conducted by Prof. Powers, in free gymnastics; by Prof. Blackman, in music; by W. M. Scribner, in penmanship; and by Prof. E. N. Booth, in elocution. Discussions were held upon the subject of "*Elocution;*" and "*To what extent should the Language of the Text-book be adhered to?*" The report of the Committee on "Modifications of the School Law" was adopted, to the effect that the fund of the State Superintendent for travel and clerk-hire should be at least $2,500, and that he be authorized to appoint an assistant, to be a State officer, with a salary

of $1,500; that $5,000 be appropriated annually for Institute purposes, of which the Board of Education should be trustees; that the Board appoint an agent to conduct Institutes, in connection with the State Superintendent; and that there be an annual convention of County Commissioners, to advise as to the time and place of holding Institutes. The President was authorized to bring these subjects before the attention of the Legislature.

OFFICERS FOR 1864–5.

President.—S. M. ETTER. *Vice-Presidents.*—S. H. WHITE, W. A. JONES, A. M. GOW, Rev. R. C. MATTHEWS, J. H. KNAPP, P. C. ROYCE, E. A. GASTMAN, E. L CLARK, JON SHASTID, O. S. COOK, J. M. PACE, J. A. HAMILTON, and P. K. ROOTS. *Recording Secretary.*—Z. TRUESDEL. *Executive Committee.*—J. F. EBERHARD, E. C. HEWETT, and J. D. LOW.

CONSTITUTION—1864.

I.—This Association shall be called "THE ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION."

II.—This Association shall hold its meetings annually.

III.—The officers of this Association shall consist of a President, nine Vice-Presidents, one from each Congressional District in the State, a Recording Secretary, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, a Committee on Programme and Arrangements, and a Committee on School Government, all of whom shall be appointed annually and hold their offices until their successors are elected.

IV.—It shall be the duty of the President to preside at the regular meetings of the Association and to attend to all the duties incumbent upon said office; and some one of the Vice-Presidents shall preside in case of his absence.

The President and the nine Vice-Presidents shall constitute the Executive Board of the Association, six of whom shall be a quorum to transact business. It shall be the duty of this Executive Board to advise with the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the Corresponding Secretary of the Association, and with the Treasurer; to report to the Association, annually, any revision they deem expedient in the School Law and in this Constitution; to attend to the general interests of the Association; and to take a general supervision of the cause of education in their respective districts, by advising with the County Commissioners, Township Trustees and District School Directors.

V.—It shall be the duty of the Recording Secretary to keep a correct account of the proceedings of the Association.

VI.—It shall be the duty of the Corresponding Secretary to conduct all the foreign correspondence of the Association.

VII.—It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive membership fees and all other funds accruing by donation or otherwise, and disburse the same on the order of the Executive Board; and he shall be required to make an annual report to the Association of the condition of the finances.

VIII.—It shall be the duty of the Committee on Programme and Arrangements to arrange the literary exercises for each session of the Association.

IX.—It shall be the duty of the Committee on School Government to report annually to the Association the best manner of governing schools.

X.—This Association shall consist of teachers, and of state, county, township, and district-school officers in the State of Illinois; each male member paying one dollar annually and signing the Constitution.

Honorary members may be elected at any annual meeting, and may participate in the debates, but not be entitled to vote.

XI.—All officers shall be elected by ballot, except when otherwise ordered by the Association, a majority of votes electing.

XII.—The Executive Board of the Association shall have power to fill any vacancies that may occur in the offices of the Association by death, resignation, or otherwise, between the annual sessions of the Association.

XIII.—This Constitution may be altered and amended by a vote of two-thirds of the members present, at any regular meeting of the Association.

Engd by G. E. Jerome & Co. N.Y.

J. V. N. Standish

[illegible] obligations.

Mr. Standish's experience in teaching is long, varied, and uniformly success-

J. Stanislas

PRESIDENTS OF THE ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

W. H. POWELL.

W. H. POWELL was for some twelve years actively engaged in the cause of education in Illinois; was Secretary of the Convention in 1853 at which the State Teachers' Association was formed, and also of the previous Educational Convention held at Springfield in 1852. In the absence of the first President, Rev. W. Goodfellow, D. D., he presided at the first Annual Session of the State Association, and was elected President for the following year. In 1862 he retired from the educational field and engaged in other business.

CHARLES E. HOVEY.

CHARLES EDWARD HOVEY was born at Thetford, Vt., 26th of April, 1827. He graduated at Dartmouth in 1852; was for two years principal of the High School at Framingham, Mass.; in 1854 removed to Peoria, Ill.; was active in organizing the public schools, principal of the High School, and Superintendent of the city schools until 1857; President of the State Association in 1856; editor of the "Illinois Teacher" in 1856 and 1857; and appointed first principal of the Normal University in June, 1857. This position he held until 1861, when he resigned to serve his country as an officer in her armies. For a fuller sketch of his life, and of his active educational labors in Illinois, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. VIII., p. 94.

J. V. N. STANDISH.

J. V. N. STANDISH was born in Woodstock, Vermont, on the 26th of February, 1825—a lineal descendant from Capt. Miles Standish, of Plymouth and Puritan fame. He was brought up in a rural district—with good common school advantages and better than common farmers' boy fare and care from an intelligent, thoughtful and industrious father. His habits of punctuality, frugality, and industry are due to that father's interest in his schooling and bringing up, and his scholarship he acquired by diligently improving the teachings of such men as the late Prof. James M. Massey, who taught the school of his district several winters, and Prof. J. C. C. Hoskins, a graduate of Dartmouth, under whom he fitted for college at the academy at Lebanon, N. H. He earned his way through Norwich University, where he graduated in 1847, by teaching district-school a portion of each year. To Col. Truman B. Ranson, the President of the College, he feels greatly indebted, not only for his valuable class instruction but for his personal interest in his conduct and studies. To Prof. James D. Butler and Prof. Jackman he also acknowledges himself under many obligations.

Mr. Standish's experience in teaching is long, varied, and uniformly success-

ful. Commencing with a common school in a district of his native town when he was fifteen years old, at eleven dollars a month—he kept on, rising in the scale of responsibility and wages through a central, a select, an academic, a graded, and a high school, until the autumn of 1854, when we was elected Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in Lombard University at Galesburg, Illinois. In this position he has labored with great success for twelve years, and for three of those years he was acting President in the Institution.

Outside of his own school-room and class-room he has ever taken an active interest in the educational movements of his town, county, and State. He has taken part in the drill exercise of the Teachers' Institute of his own county, each season, and at one or more Institutes in other counties. He is a regular attendant on the annual session of the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1857—and occasionally contributes articles to the educational journals.

W. H. WELLS.

WILLIAM HARVEY WELLS was born at Tolland, Conn., Feb. 27th, 1812. After teaching in the East Hartford Academy, he was from 1837 to 1847 in the Teachers' Seminary of Rev. S. R. Hall, at Andover, Mass., when he became principal of the Putnam Free School at Newburyport. In 1854 he was appointed principal of the Westfield State Normal School, and two years afterward Superintendent of Public Schools in Chicago, Michigan, from which position he retired in July, 1864. He was President of the Essex County Teachers' Association, and of the American Institute of Instruction, a founder and President of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, President of the National Teachers' Association, originator of the National Normal School Association, and President of the Illinois State Teachers' Association in 1860. His "*English Grammar*" was published in 1846, his "*Graded School*" in 1862, and he was also an early editor of the "*Massachusetts Teacher*." For an extended memoir see Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. VIII., p. 529.

WILLIAM M. BAKER.

WILLIAM MELVILLE BAKER was born in Phippsburg, Maine, July 4th, 1823, where he resided until twelve years of age, having the advantage of district-schools for six months in the year, and admission to a good circulating library, from which he read promiscuously and omnivorously. His father then removed to the lumber regions of the State, where for four years he was without the privileges of school or society. After his return to civilized life and a brief attendance during two winters at public schools, he determined to prepare for college, though with no resources but such as lay within himself. He fitted at Belfast Academy, entered Waterville College in 1843, where he remained one year, graduating at Bowdoin College in 1847. He was then, for a year or more, member of the Bangor Theological Seminary, which he left to take charge of Hampden Academy. He had previously taught school many terms, during the winters and sometimes during the autumn. In 1849 he took charge of Bridgton Academy for four years, and then of Lewiston Academy for a year, when he accepted the principalship of the Putnam Free School at Newburyport, Mass., as successor to William H. Wells. He was here for three years, when, leaving the school with a larger number of pupils than had ever before attended it, he removed to Quincy, Illinois, in 1857, and there established a private seminary for both sexes.

H.W. Smith, N.Y.

N. Bateman

[illegible] interested in the pro-

[illegible]

until 1851, when reasons of a personal and domestic character induced his return to Jacksonville. He was immediately tendered the principalship of the Public Free School, then just established, several years in advance of the first

Mr. Baker, while at Newburyport, had been actively interested in the proceedings of the Essex County Association, and at Quincy saw the need of similar means to excite an interest in public education. The teachers were called together, a County Association formed, of which he was President for two years, and Institutes were held, with good results. In 1861 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association. In the following year he entered service in the field as chaplain until December, 1864, when he resigned and received the position of Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction, which he held until October, 1865, when he became principal of the Springfield High School.

NEWTON BATEMAN.

NEWTON BATEMAN was born near Fairton, Cumberland county, New Jersey, July 27th, 1822, and removed to Jacksonville, Illinois, in 1833. His father was in very indigent circumstances, and he grew up accustomed to poverty, and trained to hard manual labor. Up to the age of sixteen he had gained but the rudiments of an English education, obtained in three or four terms at very *common* schools. In the fall of 1835 he attended the anniversary exercises of Illinois College, and there the desire was awakened and the resolution formed to go out from the same walls a graduate. Yet, for four years, though the hope and the determination grew, the absolute necessity for other labor prevented an attempt at their fulfillment. In July, 1839, his *time* was unexpectedly given to him and the privilege of struggling single-handed for the attainment of that which he so much desired. Within an hour, arrangements were made for study and recitation under Prof. Truman M. Post, of Illinois College, and the work was begun. Though at the time wholly ignorant of Latin and Greek, yet in less than four months he was able to pass a full examination and entered the Freshman class. Contracting his expenses within the narrowest limits, and earning the necessary means by such labor as offered itself, in the latter years of the course by teaching the lower classes, he graduated in June, 1843, and immediately made preparations to enter Lane Theological Seminary. Accepting an agency, he traveled for some weeks on foot through Southern Indiana and Ohio, and with the means thus acquired entered the Seminary in September, but in the following spring, worn down by protracted study, he left for the East in the pursuit of health and employment by which to enable himself to resume attendance at the Seminary. To his connection with the faculties of these institutions, and especially to Prof. Post and Dr. Lyman Beecher, does Mr. Bateman attribute whatever literary taste and enthusiasm for literary pursuits he may have shown, and his exertion and ambition to devote his powers to high views and worthy ends.

The determination to engage in educational pursuits was chiefly induced by the experiences of the following eighteen months, which were spent in an agency which brought him into communication and constant association with the educational institutions and teachers of nearly every State and principal city in the Union. In 1845 he returned to the West and opened a private school in St. Louis, in which the number of scholars increased from five to over a hundred during the first year. In October, 1847, he entered upon the duties of professor of mathematics in St. Charles College, Missouri, where he remained until 1851, when reasons of a personal and domestic character induced his return to Jacksonville. He was immediately tendered the principalship of the Public Free School, then just established, several years in advance of the first

free school law, and entered upon the work of organization and classification, overcoming objections and obstacles, and making a reputation for the institution both at home and abroad. Taking upon himself the personal charge of the High School Department, he fitted over a hundred students for college during his principalship, and as many more became teachers. In 1858 he resigned his position and was appointed principal of the Jacksonville Female Academy, but after the performance of much preliminary work and while the prospect of a field of great interest and usefulness opened itself before him, he resigned (Dec., 1858) to prepare for the duties of the State Superintendency to which he had been elected in the previous November. While in Jacksonville he was twice elected County Superintendent of Schools, holding the office for four years in succession, examining in that time several hundred teachers for the common schools. In Dec., 1854, he assisted in the organization of the Illinois State Teachers' Association; he was one of the committee that originated the "Illinois Teacher," and was one of the first board of editors of that Journal, and also afterwards principal editor in 1858, laboring at the same time eight hours a-day in the school-room. At the next session he read by appointment a report upon "*School Government*," and was elected Corresponding Secretary, and member of the Executive Committee. He was also nominated as the Teachers' candidate for the office of State Superintendent, which nomination was indorsed by the State Republican Convention, but was declined. In 1856 he was appointed State Agent in the service of the Association. All this preliminary labor in the school-room, in connection with both private and public schools; in the field, as superintendent and examiner; and in association with the teachers of the State, was admirably fitting him for the new and more important position in which he was now placed, and to which he was reëlected in 1860 and again in 1864. In January, 1863, he was also appointed by the Governor and Senate member of the State Board of Education for six years. In connection with the State Superintendency he has issued two official reports, and a digest of the School Laws of the State, with official and judicial decisions, while his official circulars, to school officers and others, would form a volume of three or four hundred pages, and have contributed more than any other agency to a better understanding of the school laws and system.

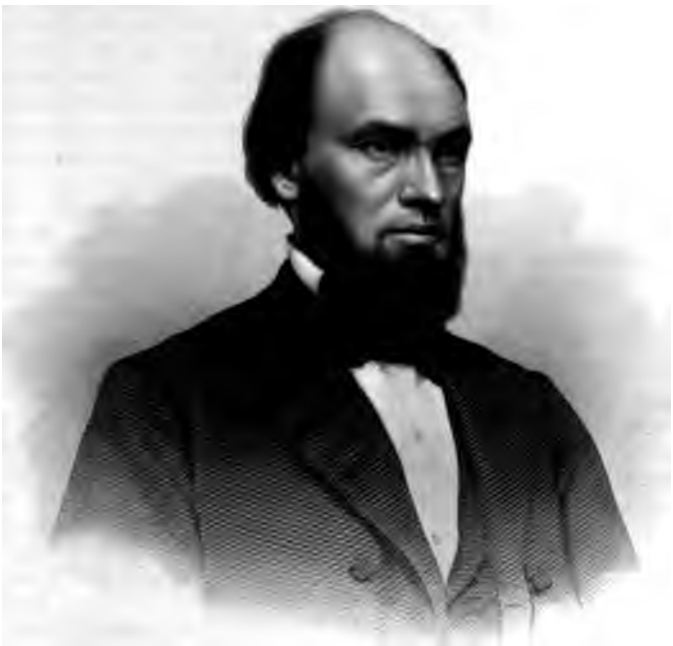
Mr. Bateman has attended and participated in most of the sessions of the State Association, of which he was elected President in 1862, and has delivered addresses on educational subjects in about half of the counties of the State, and by invitation before associations in several of the neighboring States. He has contributed more or less to every volume of the Illinois Teacher since its commencement, and for more than twenty years frequent communications from his pen upon educational subjects have appeared in various periodicals, reviews, and newspapers. He has spared himself in no manner and at no time; labor has been his law, and the results commend the workman.

RICHARD EDWARDS, A. M.

RICHARD EDWARDS was born in Cardiganshire, South Wales, on the 23d of December, 1822. His father was a mason in narrow circumstances and removed to this country ten years afterwards and settled in Northern Ohio. Here, until he attained his majority, his time was spent in labor upon the farm and as a house carpenter, except the short time spent in the ordinary common schools of the neighborhood. The few books, however, to which he had access,

free school law, and entered upon the work of organization and classification, overcoming objections and obstacles, and making a reputation for the institution both at home and abroad. Taking upon himself the personal charge of the

school of the neighborhood. The few books, however, to which he had access,



Engd by Geo E [illegible] N.Y.

RICHARD EDWARDS,

Principal of State Normal University

NORMAL [illegible] NOTE

ENGRAVED FOR BARNARD'S AM. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

including the Bible, were faithfully read and studied. In the winter of 1843–4 he taught his first school near Ravenna, Ohio, for eleven dollars a month and "board round"—wages which he afterwards thought more than an equivalent. Hearing of Normal Schools in Massachusetts and furnished with a letter of introduction to Rev. Samuel J. May, then of Lexington, Mass., he set out with little other outfit, and traveling by stage and canal and perhaps on foot, he finally completed the journey, that he might enjoy the advantages of such an institution. Kindly received by Mr. May, but destitute of means, he, through his recommendation, obtained a school in Hingham for the winter, and spent the spring and early summer at his trade as a carpenter. In the following August, 1845, he entered the Normal School at Bridgewater, then conducted by Nicholas Tillinghast, and here obtained his first ideas of what a teacher should be and do. He completed the prescribed year of study, spending the winter again at Hingham, and teaching the following winter in Waltham, where he made the acquaintance of Rev. Thomas Hill, now President of Harvard College, whose active friendship has since been of essential service on more than one occasion.

Mr. Edwards then spent a year in the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, N. Y., employed during the last six months as "Repeater," or pupil-teacher. After a short service, in the spring of 1848, as civil engineer in a subordinate capacity upon the Boston Water-works, he was engaged by Mr. Tillinghast as assistant in the Normal School, also aided by Dana P. Colburn, afterwards principal of the Rhode Island Normal School. Here he spent five years of laborious, illy paid, but most profitable service, the chief oversight of the school, owing to the failing health of the principal, often devolving upon him, while in addition to his duties in the school, much aid was rendered by him in the State Institutes, then under the management of Dr. Barnas Sears, Secretary of the Board of Education. At Bridgewater, Mr. Edwards added much to the efficiency of the school and devised and arranged almost wholly the methods of teaching geography, for which that school has been distinguished. In January, 1853, he resigned to take charge of the Bowditch English High School for Boys in Salem, from which he was called the following autumn to act as State Agent in visiting schools, advising teachers and school officers, addressing public meetings, instructing in Teachers' Institutes, &c. In September, 1854, he received charge of the State Normal School newly established at Salem, and in the three years in which he was here engaged, was developed in its main features that system of professional drill which he has since so successfully followed.

In October, 1857, Mr. Edwards removed to St. Louis to organize and take charge of the City Normal School, designed for preparing teachers, principally females, for the public schools of the city. The misappropriation of the school fund by the rebel authorities in 1861 seriously crippled the schools, though the Normal School was still maintained, in conjunction with the City High School, both institutions being placed in charge of Mr. Edwards. In the spring of 1862, he resigned his position here, much against the wishes of his employers, and accepted a position in the State Normal University of Illinois, of which he was appointed principal in the following June. He is here still engaged, (1865,) having as principal the almost entire charge of the strictly professional instruction, besides the general oversight of the institution and the early instruction of

the Junior classes in reading. He is also called upon to do much outside labor in attending Institutes, delivering public addresses upon education, &c. In 1863 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association, and in the following year was principal editor of the "*Illinois Teacher*," and he is also at present engaged in the preparation of a series of School Readers. Under his care the University is steadily increasing in reputation and numbers, and the field before him is one in which his singleness of purpose and unflagging enthusiasm can work the richest results to the State and the whole cause of education. In 1863 Mr. Edwards received from Harvard College the honorary degree of Master of Arts.

LADIES' EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

ORIGIN AND RESULTS.

THE LADIES' ASSOCIATION FOR EDUCATING FEMALES was organized in Jacksonville, Ill., Oct. 4th, 1833. It was in some sense an offshoot of the enterprise which resulted in the founding of Illinois College. The wives of those early missionaries, and a few others who sympathized with them, on their arrival in that new and growing state, immediately cast about to see what they could do to forward its best interests. In traveling to their respective stations and in subsequent intercourse with the people, they met whole families who were unable to read or write. They heard of towns and counties without a school of any kind—of thousands and thousands of children without any means of instruction, and of the thousands of teachers needed to supply them. Minds awake to the question, "What needs to be done," naturally found here their answer. These destitute settlements must be supplied with schools and the teachers must come from among the people. *They* understood the people and could live as the people lived. This in most places would give them an advantage over imported or Eastern teachers. They would themselves be illustrations of the elevating influence of education which the people could appreciate. But how to call out, and provide for the education of such as might be returned as teachers to their respective neighborhoods, was the problem to be solved.

Mrs. (Rev.) John F. Brooks had been teaching for some time in St. Clair county, and Mrs. (Rev.) Theron Baldwin for a brief period in Bond county. A providential meeting of these ladies afforded the opportunity for an exchange of views and feelings and disclosed the fact that their minds had been separately working at this problem. Mrs. Brooks had already received a few pupils with the design of fitting them for teachers. To some she had given tuition, for others obtained the means of paying it, by application to personal friends. With these teachers, experience deepened conviction; to them there seemed no limit to the good that might be done by prosecuting this work extensively and by concerted action on the part of the missionaries, teachers, and friends of education in different parts of the State. The formation of a society was suggested and the friends parted with the purpose, if not the promise, to use their influence in bringing about so desirable an object.

About this time, the lamented Alldis S. Allen, M. D., a graduate of Yale College, who was in Jacksonville with his wife on a visit from the East, suddenly sickened and died. His widow, left in the possession of means, and aroused to a new and vivid sense of christian duty, began to raise earnestly the inquiry, "Lord, what wilt thou have me to do?" This specific object was presented to her consideration. She returned to the East and soon sent a donation of nearly $200. The responsibility of receiving and disbursing so much

money, seemed to render some organization necessary. The ladies of Jacksonville held counsel on the subject and entered warmly into the proposed plan. A meeting was held in the Female Academy of that place and "The Ladies' Association for Educating Females" was duly organized. This name was adopted to distinguish it from societies whose object was to aid young men. Twenty years later when the reasons for such distinctions no longer existed, the name was changed to that of "Ladies' Education Society," which name it now bears.

In 1835, while on a visit at the East, Mrs. Baldwin by request explained the object and operations of the Society to meetings of ladies in New York city, Madison, N. J., and other places, and received valuable donations to its funds.

In New York city an auxiliary was formed which through the efficient agency of Mrs. Marcus Wilbur and others rendered essential aid for several years. "The Ladies' School Society" in Rochester also contributed a few hundred dollars to the cause. As the population of Illinois increased, auxiliary societies were formed in different parts of the State, and the work grew and prospered, far beyond the most sanguine expectations of its early friends, although the funds which replenished its treasury were always in small sums. It was rarely if ever the privilege of the treasurer to record a sum larger than the original $190 with which the work began. It has never employed a paid agency and its continuance and success is due, under God, to the untiring industry and unabating zeal of a few noble women, whose names with little variation have appeared from year to year upon the list of its executive officers. A glance at the Treasurer's Report shows the wide range of country from which these small sums were derived and suggests the amount of labor requisite for their collection.

The Twenty Second Annual Report estimates the number of persons aided by the Society up to that time, at about six hundred, (600.)

They came from various parts of Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, and Wisconsin, and were placed in good schools most convenient to their homes. The Society furnished their books, and tuition, while they worked out of school hours to pay for their board. In school they ranked with the best scholars, were useful to their teachers in sustaining law, as well as in other ways, so that, as one expressed it, "We can not well do without their aid." As teachers they have been employed in almost every State in the Union and in schools of every grade, from first class seminaries to the most obscure and "*only school* in the *county*." There are several in California, one has gone to Africa, another to India, and two are among the Cherokees.

The Annual Meetings of the Society were held on some evening during Commencement week at Jacksonville. Efforts were made to secure addresses from gentlemen who understood the cause and could speak effectively in its behalf. These addresses contain many valuable ideas and suggestions on the subject of Female Education, and are worthy of perusal if not of reprint. That of Rev. Theron Baldwin, which is appended to the Twenty Second Annual Report, discusses fully the *principles* of the Society.

VIRGINIA.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS.

THOUGH no organized Educational Societies have existed in the State of Virginia, yet several important Conventions have been held, whose proceedings are deserving of notice. The first of these met at Clarksburg, in the north-western part of the State, on the 8th of September, 1841. The deficiencies of the then existing common school system and the condition of the people in point of intelligence, as referred to by Gov. David Campbell in the annual message of 1839,* and the alarming state of ignorance prevailing among the people, as shown by the census of 1840,† had excited general astonishment and apprehension. The first movement towards amendment was made by the people of Western Virginia in calling the above Convention. The feeling that prevailed in that section of the State is shown in the following extract from a letter of Judge E. S. Duncan, of Harrison county, which was read before the Convention:

We in Virginia have been clamoring for the last fifteen or twenty years, about State rights and State sovereignties, forgetting or neglecting all the while

* "The statements furnished by the clerks of five city and borough courts and ninety-three of the county courts, in reply to inquiries addressed to them, ascertain that of those who applied for marriage licenses, a large number were unable to write their names. The years selected for this inquiry were those of 1817, 1827, and 1837. The statements show that the applicants for marriage licenses in 1817 amounted to 4,682; of whom 1,127 were unable to write;—5,048 in 1827, of whom the number unable to write was 1,116;—and in 1837, the applicants were 4,614; and of these the number of 1,047 were unable to write their names. From which it appears there still exists a deplorable extent of ignorance, and that in truth it is hardly less than it was twenty years ago, when the School Fund was created. The statements, it will be remembered, are partial, not embracing quite all the counties, and are moreover confined to one sex. The education of females, it is to be feared, is in a condition of much greater neglect.

"There are now in the State 200,000 children between the ages of five and fifteen. Forty thousand of these are reported to be poor children; and of them, only one-half to be attending schools. It may be safely assumed that of those possessed of property adequate to the expenses of a plain education, a large number are growing up in ignorance for want of schools within convenient distances. Of those at school, many derive little or no instruction, owing to the incapacity of the teachers, as well as to their culpable negligence and inattention. Thus the number likely to remain uneducated and to grow up without just perceptions of their duties, religious, social, and political, is really of appalling magnitude and such as to appeal with affecting earnestness to a parental legislature."—*Message of Gov. Campbell, Jan. 9th*, 1839.

† "To show the lamentable degree of ignorance in Virginia and the necessity of an effectual reform in our school system, we need only examine the returns of the late census. More than 58,000 adult white persons were returned as unable to read or write. This amount of ignorance

to perform the very duties those rights required of us. We very properly deny to the Federal Government the right to interfere with our domestic concerns for the purpose of internal improvement or education, but we take care not to exercise the right ourselves for any valuable purpose. In truth, recent developments show much to alarm us about the condition of our noble State. The late reassessment of the lands shows an enormous decline in their value, and the census discloses the melancholy fact that in Virginia, *proud old Virginia*, there are more persons at this time who can not read or write than there were ten or twelve years ago, although our white population has diminished. Something therefore must be done speedily to arrest the State in its downhill course, or she will have little left but the shadow of her former greatness. I am gratified that the movement in favor of education has originated in the West. This is as it should be. Judging from the past we have little to expect from the East, and I verily believe that the regeneration of the State must depend upon the energy and patriotism of the West.

I suppose the Convention will memorialize the Legislature on the subject of education, as well as appeal to the people for their individual support. The latter, I fear, is the only reliable hope for success. I begin to despair of any valuable action on the subject by the Legislature, until that body be remodeled and the *free white population of the West* have its just weight in the councils of the government. Appeal directly to the people and arouse them to the necessity of educating their offspring. The people of the West, although poor, have the means, and, above all, they have the energy, and if they will it, they can do much towards the education of their children from their own resources. They should form local or neighborhood associations for the purpose.

The Convention at Clarksburg was attended by one hundred and thirteen delegates from sixteen counties of North-western Virginia and the valley of the Shenandoah. George H. Lee, of Harrison county, was elected President. Communications were received from Alex. Campbell, of Brooke county, from Hon. E. S. Duncan, and from J. D. D. Rosset, of Jackson county, on the subject of education; and from Pres. Ruffner, with the outline of a plan for the improvement of common schools. The deliberations of the Convention resulted in the appointment of two committees, by whom an Address to the People and a Memorial to the Legislature were prepared.

A second Convention was held at Lexington on the 2d of Oct., 1841, composed of delegates from the counties of Bath, Augusta, and Rockbridge, in the Shenandoah Valley. At the request of this Convention, a plan for the organization and support of common

---

is enough to alarm us; but were this all that the census discloses, we should not have thought it necessary to mention the subject here. An attentive examination of the returns will show, beyond question, that *they come far short of the truth.* * * * * * Many and great errors evidently exist in these returns. They must be errors of defect, for no cause of excess can be assigned; while the negligence of the marshals and the reluctance of individuals to report their ignorance, may easily account for defects. We venture to assert also, that multitudes were reported as able to read, who could indeed labor through a printed page, but who were in no proper sense readers of books or even of newspapers, and who were in reality as ignorant, if not quite so illiterate, as those who had never learned the alphabet. When these things are taken into account, we must conclude that not less than 150,000 of the adult white population of Virginia are in a state of debasing ignorance. This is more than one-third of the 377,000 citizens over twenty years of age."—*Henry Ruffner, Pres. of Washington College, Va.*

schools was prepared by Pres. Henry Ruffner, and laid before the Legislature.

Yet a third Convention was held at Richmond on the 9th of December of the same year, during the session of the Legislature. One hundred and twenty-nine delegates were present from thirty-seven counties, besides members of the Assembly who were invited to take part in its proceedings. James M. Garnett was elected President; Gen. Edward Watts, N. E. Venable, R. W. Carter, and J. H. Peyton, Vice-Presidents; R. H. Toler and E. G. Crump, Secretaries. Reports were made by committees, on the University—Colleges—Military Schools—Academies—and Primary Schools. The latter report was especially elaborate and received the profoundest attention. The report recommended the district free school system, and was drawn up and ably defended by Rev. Benj. J. Smith, of Augusta. The existing system was defended by Rev. Dr. W. S. Plumer, of Kanawha county, who urged the expediency of adhering to it and blending with it the plan of county taxation. The report was adopted and a committee was appointed to present its principles in a memorial to the Legislature. An Address to the People was also prepared by a committee, consisting of Messrs. Thos. Ritchie, B. M. Smith, and R. G. Scott.

So far as legislative action was concerned, the result of these conventions was the referment of the subject to the Committee on Schools and Colleges. A *Bill establishing Common Schools* was reported, which only reached a second reading. The effect upon the people, however, was not thus wholly negative.

Four years afterwards, a General Convention was again called, which met in Richmond, Dec. 10th, 1845. The attendance was large, there being present two hundred and thirteen delegates from fifty-one counties. Gov. James McDowell was elected President; Judge J. T. Lomax, Judge E. S. Duncan, T. J. Randolph, Spicer Patrick, A. T. Caperton, W. H. Macfarland, J. H. Carson, and Samuel Watts, Vice-Presidents; J. S. Gallagher and R. B. Gooch, Secretaries. The main purpose of this Convention was to devise an improved system of public instruction. Various suggestions and projects were received from Hon. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, Howard Meeks, Agent for Education in Maryland, C. List, of Pennsylvania, S. A. Jewett, Col. F. H. Smith, P. V. Daniell, Jr., and others. Messrs. S. M. Janney, of Landon county, and D. N. Edgington, of Ohio county, in behalf of a minority of the committee to whom the subject had been referred, presented a plan of a district school system which, after discussion and amendment, was adopted.

This plan was afterwards laid before the Legislature with a memorial praying its adoption. An Act was accordingly passed on the 6th of March, 1846, which made important changes in the school system, creating a larger number of school districts, providing for an enumeration and registration of children, establishing the office of County Superintendent of Schools, and regulating the distribution of the school quota among the districts. This system was partially carried into effect, with favorable results. The census of 1850 showed that of the total number of 413,428 adult whites, 77,005 could not read and write. The census statistics of 1860, which would show more conclusively the result of the educational movements in the State, are not yet accessible.

The Convention of 1845, in order to secure the better success of any measures that might be adopted by the Legislature, appointed a "Central Committee of Education," consisting of Messrs. A. Stevenson, H. L. Brooke, C. F. Osborne, T. H. Ellis, S. Maupin, W. S. Plumer, R. T. Daniel, W. H. Macfarland, James Lyon, P. V. Daniell, Jr., R. B. Gooch, G. W. Munford, and H. W. Moncure, residents mostly of Richmond, whose duties were to watch over and promote the success of the new system, to ascertain its advantages and defects, with a view to its improvement, and to collect and diffuse information upon the subject of popular education. The formation of county and town associations of the friends of education was strongly recommended, but it is not certain that any were ever organized.

In 1856, July 23d and 24th, pursuant to a call through Gov. Wise, a convention of delegates from the principal colleges and academical institutions of Virginia assembled at Richmond, of which Rev. Dr. Smith, of Randolph Macon College, was appointed President, and Rev. Dr. Regland, of Richmond College, Vice-President. The condition of the Literary Fund and its application; the evils of premature admission of students to colleges, and the remedies; the affiliation of the Academies, Colleges, and the University of the State; the qualification of students of professional schools of Law, Medicine, and Theology; the education of girls; a system of Normal Schools and schools of applied Science, were discussed and referred to committees, to report at a future meeting, to be called by the Executive Committee.

The new State of West Virginia has promptly inaugurated an excellent school system, the influence of which will doubtless be speedily seen and felt.

XI. NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.*

BY E. E. WHITE,

Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio.

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION next to universal liberty, is a matter of deep national concern. The one distinctive, exhaustive idea of a democratic government is, that it is a government by the people and for the people—*i. e.* by the whole people and for the whole people. A democracy is in other words but *an organized people*—they constitute the state. Its constitution and laws are but their recorded will, and all governmental power emanates from and centers in them.

In such a government, in its pure form, sovereignty is a universal right—to be exercised by all for the happiness and well-being of all. It is a right that can neither be denied nor restricted except by usurpation, and this is true whether the usurping power is one man or twenty millions of men. The right of sovereignty may be forfeited by crime or by its treasonable exercise, but it is in no sense an accident of birth or condition.

When the exercise of sovereignty by the people is both universal and *for the welfare of all*, a democracy is the perfection of human government. But to the extent that such right is withheld from the people or is wrongfully exercised by them, just to that extent are democratic institutions imperfect and a failure. Hence the *capability* of the people to exercise sovereignty for the general welfare, is a fundamental and vital condition of republican institutions. When such capability does not exist, to the extent it is wanting, is the universal exercise of sovereignty a condition of national weakness, if not of peril. I am thus led to inquire what this capability includes, and what are the essential conditions of its existence?

It clearly requires the necessary *intelligence* to determine what will best subserve the interests of all; and the degree of this intelligence must not only be sufficient for self-government on the part of individuals and individual communities, but the people, as a whole,

---

* A paper read before the National Association of School Superintendents, at Washington, D. C., February 7, 1866.

must be able to weigh and decide upon questions which involve national interests. Hence the higher the civilization embodied, the wider the extent of territory embraced, and the more various the pursuits and physical conditions of the people, the higher the degree of intelligence required for the right exercise of sovereignty.

But intelligence is not enough. Sovereignty is to be exercised *for the happiness and well-being of all;* and this involves the *moral capacity* to act in accordance with the dictates of intelligence. The second great law of civil liberty as well as of religion, is, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Wherever the moral sense of the people is too feeble to impel the public will to regard the general welfare, democracy becomes the livery of despotism. To general intelligence we must, therefore, add public virtue as one of the essential conditions of the right exercise of sovereignty by the people.

In his Centennial Address at Plymouth, in 1820, Webster assigned three fundamental conditions as essential for the maintenance of republican institutions, namely: universal education, religious training, and the general division of landed property. The same conditions are laid down by De Tocqueville and other writers upon democratic governments.

If we turn to the pages of history we shall find abundant confirmation of these views. We shall certainly search in vain for a single example where an ignorant and corrupt people have exercised sovereign power wisely and justly, or have even retained such power for any length of time. In all the past, wherever the intellectual and moral condition of the people has been low, there civil liberty has been lost. Universal liberty without universal intelligence has ever been the sport of civil tempests. Stolid ignorance and moral degradation tread above the grave of civil liberty, all along the shores of the Mediterranean; but free government still abides with the intelligent and virtuous descendents of Tell, among the mountains of Switzerland—that diamond of liberty, set by a Divine hand in the very center of European despotism! Passing to the New World, I need only point to Mexico, where civil liberty lies prostrate and helpless beneath the crossed bayonets of two European despotisms. In a word, both reason and history compel the conclusion that republican institutions can rest upon no other basis than intelligence and virtue, and that these must pervade all heads and all hearts.

But general intelligence and public virtue are not the spontaneous fruits of civil liberty, although it is favorable to their development. As a necessary condition of their existence, they must be assid-

uously cultivated and diffused among the people. No human agency but the common school is capable of accomplishing this great work. Aided and vitalized by religion, it is the only sure foundation of the sovereignty of the people—the strength and shield of liberty.

This great fact was well understood by the founders of the American Republic. They sought to found free institutions, not upon the quicksands of human instinct and passion, but upon the abiding rock of universal education and religious training. This was the grandest of all their innovations upon the moss-grown ideas of the Old World.

But the idea that education must be co-extensive with sovereignty, was not original with our fathers. This has been the favorite doctrine of aristocracy the world over. Wherever the heel of despotism rests upon the neck of humanity, the ignorance of the oppressed has been urged as the justification of the oppressor. Despotism clamors for a restricted education, because she maintains a restricted sovereignty. The former is made just as wide as the latter.

Nor is the idea of universal sovereignty distinctively and originally American. Democracy had drawn her sword to give the people political power, long before the Mayflower cradled the new Republic; and had won the prize, too, but only to see it turn to ashes in their hands. The grand, distinctive, original idea of the American Republic is the union of these two principles, by making the one the basis of the other. With matchless wisdom our fathers joined liberty and learning in a perpetual and holy alliance, binding the latter to bless every child with instruction which the former invests with the rights and duties of citizenship. They made education and sovereignty co-extensive by making *both universal*. Here is the grandest conception of civil history, the hope and strength of civil liberty. And yet how few the successive steps by which our fathers passed from a conception of this idea to its practical embodiment. Truly they must have builded better than they knew.

Who can measure the results which the union of these two principles has already accomplished? When the sources of the nation's wonderful vitality and power during the great civil conflict through which it has just passed, shall be determined, then first and foremost will stand the common school. The rebellion, which was a gigantic conspiracy against democratic institutions, found a *people* trained to a comprehension of their duties and interests, with hearts to dare and hands to strike in their defense. The flame of civil liberty now burns with increasing brightness and new splendor, because our fathers, like the wise virgins, put into the lamp of free government the exhaustless oil of Universal Education.

I am thus brought back to the proposition with which I started, namely, that universal education is in this country a matter of deep national concern. Our experiment of republican institutions is not upon the petty scale of a single municipality or state, but it covers half a continent, and embraces peoples of widely diverse interests and conditions, but who are to remain "one and inseparable." Every condition of our perpetuity and progress as a nation adds emphasis to the remark of Montesquieu, that it is in a republican government that *the whole power of education is required.* The one imperative necessity of this nation is that the public school be planted on every square mile of its peopled territory, and that the instruction imparted therein, be carried to the highest point of efficiency.

But what can the general government do to aid in securing this object? In view of the startling fact that the great body of the people that occupy nearly one-half of the national territory, are wholly destitute of the means of education, this inquiry has the deepest significance.

Three plans have been suggested:

1. The government may establish and maintain throughout its territory a national system of education.

2. It may by Congressional legislation *enforce* the maintenance of a public school system upon every State.

3. It may by conditional appropriations and by a system of general inspection and encouragement through the agency of a National Bureau of Education, *induce* each State to maintain an efficient school system.

Notwithstanding the cogency of the argument which may be adduced in favor of the first plan suggested, it is, in my judgment, too wide a departure from the settled educational policy of the country, to be seriously entertained. Such a system would doubtless prove highly advantageous in a portion of the country, but it would be very disastrous in those States that have already carried the work of general education to a high point. Besides, all experience shows, and I regard it a law of school progress, that the nearer the responsibility of maintaining schools is brought to those directly benefited by them, the greater the vital power and efficiency of a school system.

These remarks do not apply to the education of the freedmen. On the contrary, I believe it is the sacred and bounden duty of the general government to undertake, for a time, the education of the emancipated millions who through the war have received back their

birthrights of liberty and manhood. Deprived of the uplifting power of education they can but become idle and dissolute, and sink, if possible, still deeper in degredation and misery. Besides the faith of the nation is solemnly pledged for the protection of these people in all their rights as freemen. But there is no protection so secure as *the power of self-protection*. Until the freedmen have their liberties in their own keeping *they are not really free*. They are now in a condition of abject ignorance, homeless and landless, subject to the heartless exactions of capital and the helpless victims of class prejudice and persecution. No protection of the government that fails to bring them intelligence, can save them from impending peril. No standing army can so effectually maintain the plighted faith of the government toward these people, as an army of schoolmasters. Let bayonets protect, if need be, the school-house of the freedmen, and they will soon take care of their rights and liberties. They will do more. As free, self-directing, self-supporting laborers, they will bring prosperity again to the South, and make her war-ravaged fields smile with plenty.

To the second plan suggested, there are manifestly serious objections. The imposition of a system of public instruction upon the several States by compulsory legislation, can be justified only on the ground of public necessity in a great national crisis. And I am free to admit that so great is the necessity for the establishment of public schools throughout the South, that even such a measure would be imperatively demanded if no other course to attain the same end, were practicable.

The third plan is clearly in harmony with the settled educational policy of the country. It will neither cripple nor endanger any part of our educational system; and it calls for the assumption of no questionable power by the general government. What is proposed is that the government shall undertake to do efficiently what it has, in the part, always done generously through its munificent grants of land for the encouragement of education.

Instead of unconditional grants of land or appropriations of money, such assistance should be proffered to the several States *on condition* that they reach a prescribed standard in the maintenance of free schools, and further, that a specified portion of such grants or appropriations be applied to the support of institutions for the professional training of teachers.

The fact that a State could by maintaining an efficient school system, receive from the national government, say from $100,000 to $300,000 annually, would certainly prove a potent influence in

securing such action. I could, if necessary, fortify this statement by referring to experiments of the kind in other countries, and also in several of the States of the Union where State appropriations for school purposes are conditioned on a compliance by the local school authorities with certain stipulations. This policy has uniformly, so far as my information goes, been successful. Communities indifferent to the advantages of free schools, if not prejudiced against them, have, with this assistance to their judgment, come to a wiser conclusion respecting their value. There is no eye-salve so efficacious in removing mental blindness as self-interest, and instances of States permitting the bounties of the government to pass by them have, at least, not been frequent. I am confident that the adoption of the plan suggested would speedily secure a common school system in every State now destitute of such a system, and that it would lift up the schools, as it were bodily, in those States in which they are indifferently sustained. The impetus which it would give to the professional training of teachers throughout the country, would be of incalculable value as a means of elevating and vitalizing school instruction.

There is one other consideration worthy of mention just here. The sparsely settled States of the far West and South need the assistance of the general government in the establishment of systems of education, commensurate with their growing necessity—a fact the government has always recognized. There is not a State west of the Alleghanies that is not greatly indebted to the munificent grants of land made by Congress, for the early establishment of its school system. Nor have common schools alone been aided. Several State Universities are maintained entirely from the proceeds of such grants. It is estimated that if the land grants of Congress for educational purposes had been properly managed, they would now present an aggregate educational fund of about five hundred millions of dollars.

On account of the unfortunate land-holding system of the South and the consequent sparseness of population, it would be difficult to sustain an efficient general school system there, even in times of prosperity. A proper division of landed property is as essential to universal education as it is to democratic institutions. At all events, in the present financial condition of the South the assistance of the government in establishing public schools is needed, and clearly that assistance will prove the best, which is *conditional*.

As a means of paying the national debt, I know of no one measure fuller of promise than the increase and diffusion of intelligence

among the mass of the people. The expenditure of five to ten millions of dollars a year for this purpose, would be made good by almost immediate returns to the Post-office and Treasury departments. The unschooled millions of the South write few letters, take few papers, and pay small taxes on incomes. There are no mines in this country so productive of wealth as the *mind* of the country. Educated labor is the true alchemy that can turn greenbacks into gold.

There is one other agency forming an essential part of the third plan proposed, which I hasten to consider. I allude to a National Bureau of Education, corresponding in many of its features to the National Department of Agriculture. The interests of education would unquestionably be greatly promoted by the organization of such a Bureau at the present time. It would render needed assistance in the establishment of school systems where they do not now exist, and prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. I conceive it to be possible for a National Bureau of Education to be so managed as to well-nigh revolutionize school instruction in this country, and this too without its being invested with any official control of the school authorities in the several States. This it could accomplish:

1. By securing greater uniformity and accuracy in school statistics, and so translating and interpreting them that they may be more widely available and reliable as educational tests and measures. The present great diversity in the modes of collecting school statistics in the several States, makes it almost impossible to use them for the purpose of comparing the results attained.

2. By bringing together the results of school *systems* in different communities, states and nations, and determining their comparative value, not simply by measuring their length and breadth as with a yard-stick, but by separating the pure gold of education from the dross, as in a crucible.

3. By collecting the results of all important experiments in new or special methods of instruction and management, and making them the common property of the school officers and teachers of the country.

4. By diffusing among the people much needed information respecting the school laws of the different States; the various modes of providing and disbursing school funds; the different classes of school officers employed and their relative duties; the qualifications demanded of teachers and the agencies provided for their special training; the best methods of classifying and grading schools; im-

proved plans for school-houses, together with modes of heating and ventilation, etc., etc.—information now obtained only by a few persons, and at great expense, but which is of the highest value to all intrusted with the management of schools.

5. By aiding communities and States in the organization of school systems in which oft-exploded errors shall be avoided, and vital agencies and well-tried improvements be included.

6. By the general diffusion of correct ideas respecting the *value* of education as a quickener of intellectual activities; as a moral renovator; as a multiplier of industry and a consequent producer of wealth; and finally as the strength and shield of free institutions.

It is not possible to measure the influence which the faithful performance of these duties would exert upon the cause of education in this country; and few persons who have not been intrusted with the management of school systems, can fully realize how wide-spread and urgent is the demand for such assistance. Indeed, the very existence of the Association I now address, is of itself cogent proof of a demand for a national channel of communication between the school systems of the different States. Millions of dollars have been thrown away in fruitless experiments or stolid plodding for the want of just such information as a National Bureau could make accessible to the people.

We have a strong confirmation of these views in the potent influence which Horace Mann exerted upon the schools of this country —notwithstanding his official reports had necessarily a limited circulation outside of his own State. Who can measure the influence which he would have exerted at the head of a National Bureau of Education? How great the necessity for such a vital power to flow down from the general government, at the present time, perpermeating and vitalizing all parts of our school system! *

We have also a very forcible illustration of the same position in the powerful influence exerted upon English elementary schools by the National Committee of Council of Education, while James Kay Shuttleworth was its Secretary; and also, subsequently.

But in determining the probable efficiency and value of a National Bureau of Education, there is a fundamental law, running through the entire history of educational progress, which must not be overlooked. Idolatry has never been self-moved to cast its idols to the moles and the bats; nor has benighted Paganism ever lifted itself into the light of a beneficent civilization. The impulse

* Mr. Mann may have originated few measures of educational progress, but he gave *wings* as well as vital power to the measures and agencies of others

to such progress always comes from without and above. The civilization of the world has a fountain-head. The same law holds true in education. An ignorant community has no inward impulse to lead it to educate itself. Just where education is most needed there it is always least appreciated and valued. The half-savage population of Ban de la Roche had for centuries hugged their barbarism, when the good Oberlin went among them. Berkeley, a colonial Governor of Virginia, thanked God that there were no free schools in his colony, and only twice twelve months ago the slave shamble, instead of the school-house, still stood at the cross-roads of the Old Dominion. The *demand* for education is always awakened by external influences and agencies. Hence, Adam Smith and other writers on political economy expressly except education from the operation of the general law of supply and demand.

This law has a wide application in school affairs. Communities that have, indeed, some general appreciation of education, rest satisfied with very indifferent schools until some influence supplies the impulse to reform and progress. No one obstacle lies so directly across the track of school advancement as the idea entertained by nearly every community that they have attained unsurpassed excellence in education; and this self-flattery often exists where the work of reform needs to be most earnestly undertaken. A National Bureau would hold up to many school systems a mirror which would reveal attainable results and desirable changes.

I remark, finally, that the creation of a National Bureau would be a practical recognition by the government of the value and necessity of universal education as a means of perpetuating free institutions. It would impart to the common school cause a dignity and a character which would surely widen its influence and enhance its efficiency. It would be an argument for the education of the people, which would be *felt* throughout the country.

The highest success of the Bureau will, of course, depend much upon the manner in which it is officered. Instead of being made a burrow for seedy politicians, it must be made the center of the ripest experience, and the most eminent attainments to be found among the educators of the country. The work of such a Bureau must be directed by a mind that comprehends the aim and scope of education, its philosophy, its history, its processes, its practical details.

But we need to go further than this. Commissions similar to the great Commissions that have been sitting successively in Great Britain, should be appointed by Congress to examine respectively

into our systems of collegiate education, our professional or special schools, and the instruction of our public schools. Such investigations would exert a powerful influence upon our educational systems which have as yet neither crystallized nor fossilized. Now is the opportune time to introduce changes and modifications.

Let it be remembered that the next great problem of republican institutions is the uplifting of each successive generation of Americans to a true comprehension of their high duties and responsibilities. In this sublime work, society, the state, and the nation must be conjoined. Around each child born into American liberty, they must stand as a triple guaranty that the boon of education shall not be denied.

XII. STUDIES AND CONDUCT.

SUGGESTIONS BY MEN EMINENT IN LETTERS AND AFFAIRS.

Second Article.

LETTER FROM LORD BROUGHAM TO ZACHARY MACAULEY, ESQ., ON THE TRAINING OF HIS SON, (THE LATE LORD MACAULEY,) AS AN ORATOR.

NEWCASTLE, *March* 10, 1823.

MY DEAR FRIEND:—My principal object in writing to you to-day is to offer you some suggestions, in consequence of some conversation I have just had with Lord Grey, who has spoken of your son (at Cambridge) in terms of the greatest praise. He takes his account from his son; but from all I know, and have learnt in other quarters, I doubt not that his judgment is well formed. Now you, of course, destine him for the bar, and, assuming that this, and the public objects incidental to it, are in his views, I would fain impress upon you, (and through you, upon him,) a truth or two which experience has made me aware of, and which I would have given a great deal to have been acquainted with earlier in life from the experience of others.

First, that the foundation of all excellence is to be laid in early application to general knowledge, is clear; that he is already aware of; and equally so it is, (of which he may not be so well aware,) that professional eminence can only be attained by entering betimes into the lowest drudgery—the most repulsive labors of the profession—even a year in an attorney's office, as the law is now practiced, I should not hold too severe a task, or too high a price to pay, for the benefit it must surely lead to; but, at all events, the life of a special pleader, I am quite convinced, is the thing before being called to the bar. A young man whose mind has once been well imbued with general learning, and has acquired classical propensities, will never sink into a mere drudge. He will always save himself harmless from the dull atmosphere he must live and work in, and the sooner he will emerge from it, and arrive at eminence. But what I wish to inculcate especially, with a view to the great talent for public speaking which your son happily possess, is that he should cultivate that talent in the only way in which it can reach the height of the art, and I wish to turn his attention to two points. I speak on this subject with the authority both of experience and observation;

I have made it very much my study in theory; have written a great deal upon it which may never see the light, and something which has been published; have meditated much and conversed much on it with famous men; have had some little practical experience in it, but have prepared for much more than I ever tried, by a variety of laborious methods, reading, writing, much translation, composing in foreign languages, &c., and I have lived in times when there were great orators among us; therefore I reckon my opinion worth listening to, and the rather, because I have the utmost confidence in it myself, and should have saved a world of trouble and much time had I started with a conviction of its truth.

1. The first point is this,—the beginning of the art is to acquire a habit of easy speaking; and, in whatever way this can be had (which individual inclination or accident will generally direct, and may safely be allowed to do so,) it must be had. Now, I differ from all other doctors of rhetoric in this,—I say, let him first of all learn to speak easily and fluently, as well as sensibly as he can no doubt, but at any rate let him learn to speak. This is to eloquence, or good public speaking, what the being able to talk in a child is to correct grammatical speech. It is the requisite foundation, and on it you must build. Moreover, it can only be acquired young, therefore let it by all means, and at any sacrifice, be gotten hold of forthwith. But in acquiring it every sort of slovenly error will also be acquired. It must be got by a habit of easy writing (which, as Wyndham said, proved hard reading) by a custom of talking much in company; by speaking in debating societies, with little attention to rule, and more love of saying something at any rate than of saying any thing well. I can even suppose that more attention is paid to the matter in such discussions than in the manner of saying it; yet still to say it easily, *ad libitum*, to be able to say what you choose, and what you have to say,—this is the first requisite, to acquire which every thing else must for the present be sacrificed.

2. The next step is the grand one—to convert this style of easy speaking into chaste eloquence. And here there is but one rule. I do earnestly entreat your son to set daily and nightly before him the Greek models. First of all he may look to the best modern speeches (as he probably has already); Burke's best compositions, as the "Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents;" speech "On the American Conciliation," and "On the Nabob of Arcot's Debt;" Fox's "Speech on the Westminster Scrutiny," (the first part of which he should pore over till he has it by heart); "On the Russian Armament," and "On the War," 1803, with one or two of

Wyndham's best, and very few, or rather none, of Sheridan's; but he must by no means stop here. If he would be a great orator, he must go at once to the fountain head, and be familiar with every one of the great orations of Demosthenes. I take for granted that he knows those of Cicero by heart; they are very beautiful, but not very useful, except perhaps the *Milo*, *pro Ligario*, and one or two more; but the Greek must positively be the model; and merely reading it, as boys do, to know the language, won't do at all; he must enter into the spirit of each speech, thoroughly know the positions of the parties, follow each turn of the argument, and make the absolutely perfect and most chaste and severe composition familiar to his mind. His taste will improve every time he reads and repeats to himself (for he should have the fine passages by heart,) and he will learn how much may be done by a skillful use of a few words and a rigorous rejection of all superfluities. In this view I hold a familiar knowledge of Dante to be next to Demosthenes. It is in vain to say that imitations of these models will not do for our times. First, I do not counsel any imitation, but only an imbibing of the same spirit. Secondly, I know from experience that nothing is half so successful in these times (bad though they be) as what has been formed on the Greek models. I use a very poor instance in giving my own experience, but I do assure you that both in courts of law and Parliament, and even to mobs, I have never made so much play (to use a very modern phrase) as when I was almost translating from the Greek.

I commenced the peroration of my speech for the Queen, in the Lords, after reading and repeating Demosthenes for three or four weeks, and I composed it twenty times over at least, and it certainly succeeded in a very extraordinary degree, and far above any merits of its own. This leads me to remark, that though speaking, with writing beforehand, is very well until the habit of easy speech is acquired, yet after that he can never write too much; this is quite clear. It is laborious, no doubt, and it is more difficult beyond comparison than speaking off-hand; but it is necessary to perfect oratory, and at any rate it is necessary to acquire the habit of correct diction. But I go further, and say, even to the end of a man's life he must prepare word for word most of his finer passages. Now, would he be a great orator or no? In other words, would he have almost absolute power of doing good to mankind, in a free country or no? So he wills this, he must follow these rules.

Believe me truly yours,

H. Brougham.

It is but reciting the ordinary praises of the art of persuasion, to remind you how sacred truths may be most ardently promulgated at the altar—the cause of oppressed innocence be most powerfully defended—the march of wicked rulers be most triumphantly resisted—defiance the most terrible be hurled at the oppressor's head. In great convulsions of public affairs, or in bringing about salutary changes, every one confesses how important an ally eloquence must be. But in peaceful times, when the progress of events is slow and even as the silent and unheeded pace of time, and the jars of a mighty tumult in foreign and domestic concerns can no longer be heard, then too she flourishes,—protectress of liberty,—patroness of improvement,—guardian of all the blessings that can be showered upon the mass of human kind; nor is her form ever seen but on ground consecrated to free institutions. "Pacis comes, otiique socia, et jam bene constitutæ reipublicæ alumna eloquentia." To me, calmly revolving these things, such pursuits seem far more noble objects of ambition than any upon which the vulgar herd of busy men lavish prodigal their restless exertions. To diffuse useful information,—to further intellectual refinement, sure forerunner of moral improvement,—to hasten the coming of the bright day when the dawn of general knowledge shall chase away the lazy, lingering mists, even from the base of the great social pyramid;—this indeed is a high calling, in which the most splendid talents and consummate virtue may well press onward, eager to bear a part.

Let me, therefore, indulge in the hope, that, among the illustrious youths whom this ancient kingdom famed alike for its nobility and its learning, has produced, to continue her fame through after ages, possibly among those I now address, there may be found some one—I ask no more—willing to give a bright example to other nations in a path yet untrodden, by taking the lead of his fellow-citizens,—not in frivolus amusements, nor in the degrading pursuits of the ambitious vulgar,—but in the truly noble task of enlightening the mass of his countrymen, and of leaving his own name no longer encircled, as heretofore, with barbaric splendor, or attached to courtly gewgaws, but illustrated by the honors most worthy of our rational nature—coupled with the diffusion of knowledge—and gratefully pronounced through all ages by millions whom his wise beneficence has rescued from ignorance and vice. This is the true mark for the aim of all who either prize the enjoyment of pure happiness, or set a right value upon a high and unsullied renown.—And if the benefactors of mankind, when they rest from their pious labors, shall be permitted to enjoy hereafter, as an appropriate reward of their virtue, the privilege of looking down upon the blessings with which their toils and sufferings have clothed the scene of their former existence; do not vainly imagine that, in a state of exalted purity and wisdom, the founders of mighty dynasties, the conquerors of new empires, or the more vulgar crowd of evil-doers, who have sacrificed to their own aggrandizement the good of their fellow-creatures, will be gratified by contemplating the monuments of their inglorious fame:—theirs will be the delight—theirs the triumph—who can trace the remote effects of their enlightened benevolence in the improved condition of their species, and exult in the reflection, that the prodigious change they now survey, with eyes that age and sorrow can make dim no more—of knowledge become power—virtue sharing in the dominion—superstition trampled under foot—tyranny driven from the world—are the fruits, precious, though costly, and though late reaped, yet long enduring, of all the hardships and all the hazards they encountered here below!—LORD BROUGHAM—*Inaugural Discourse at Glasgow as Lord Rector*, 1825

THE TEACHERS OF MANKIND.

Such men—men deserving the glorious title of Teachers of Mankind, I have found laboring conscientiously; though perhaps obscurely, in their blessed vocation, wherever I have gone. God be thanked, their numbers every where abound, and are every day increasing. Their calling is high and holy; their fame is the property of nations; their renown will fill the earth in after ages, in proportion as it sounds not far off in their own times. Each one of these great teachers of the world, possessing his soul in peace—performs his appointed course—awaiting in patience the fulfillment of the promises—resting from his labors, bequeathes his memory to the generations whom his works have blessed—and sleeps under the humble but not inglorious epitaph, commemorating one in whom mankind had a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy.—*Address at Corner Stone of Mechanics' Institute. Liverpool*, 1825.

LETTER FROM THOMAS CARLYLE TO A STUDENT, ASKING ADVICE AS TO READING AND A PROFESSION.

DEAR SIR:—Some time ago your letter was delivered to me; I take literally the first half-hour I have had since to write you a word of answer. It would give me true satisfaction could any advice of mine contribute to forward you in your honorable course of self-improvement, but a long experience has taught me that advice can profit but little; that there is a good reason why advice is so seldom followed; this reason, namely, that it so seldom, and can almost never be, rightly given. No man knows the state of another; it is always to some more or less imaginary man that the wisest and most honest adviser is speaking.

As to the books which you—whom I know so little of—should read, there is hardly any thing definite that can be said. For one thing, you may be strenuously advised to keep reading. Any good book, any book that is wiser than yourself, will teach you something—a great many things, indirectly and directly, if your mind be open to learn. This old counsel of Johnson's is also good, and universally applicable: "Read the book you do honestly feel a wish and curiosity to read." The very wish and curiosity indicates that you, then and there, are the person likely to get good of it. "Our wishes are presentiments of our capabilities;" that is a noble saying, of deep encouragement to our wishes and efforts in regard to reading, as to other things. Among all the objects that look wonderful or beautiful to you, follow with fresh hope that one which looks wonderfulest, beautifulest. You may gradually find by various trials (which trials see that you make honest, manful ones, not silly, short, fitful ones,) what *is* for the wonderfulest, beautifulest—what is your *true* element and province, and be able to profit by that. True desire, the monition of nature, is much to be attended to. But here also, you are to discriminate carefully between *true* desire and false. The medical men tell us that we should eat what we *truly* have an appetite for; but what we only *falsely* have an appetite for we should resolutely avoid. It is very true: and flimsy desultory readers, who fly from foolish book to foolish book, and get good of none, and mischief of all—are not those as foolish, unhealthy eaters, who mistake their superficial false desire after spiceries and confectioneries for their real appetite, of which even they are not destitute, though it lies far deeper, far quieter, after solid nutritive food! With these illustrations I will recommend Johnson's advice to you.

Another thing, and only one other I will say. All books are

properly the record of the history of past men—what thoughts past men had in them, what actions past men did: the summary of all books whatsoever lies *there*. It is on this ground that the class of books specifically named History can be safely recommended as the basis of all study of books. Past history, and especially the past history of one's own native country, everybody may be advised to begin with that. Let him study that faithfully; innumerable inquiries will branch out from it; he has a broad beaten highway, from which all the country is more or less visible; there traveling, let him choose where he will dwell. Neither let mistakes and wrong directions—of which every man in his studies and elsewhere, falls into many—discourage you. There is precious instruction to be got by finding we are wrong. Let a man try faithfully, manfully to be right, he will grow daily more and more right. It is at bottom the condition on which all men have to cultivate themselves. Our very walking is an incessant falling and catching of ourselves before we come actually to the pavement! It is emblematic of all things a man does.

In conclusion, I will remind you, it is not books alone, or by books chiefly, that a man becomes in all points a man. Study to do faithfully whatsoever thing in your actual situation, there and now, you find either expressly or tacitly laid to your charge; that is your post; stand in it like a true soldier. Silently devour the many chagrins of it, as all human situations have many; and see you aim not to quit it without being all that it at least required of you. A man perfects himself by work much more than by reading. They are a growing kind of men that can wisely combine the two things—wisely, valiantly, can do what is laid to their hand in their present sphere, and prepare themselves for doing other wider things, if such lie before them.

With many good wishes and encouragements, I remain, yours sincerely, THOMAS CARLYLE.

Chelsea, 13th March, 1843.

A loving heart is the beginning of all knowledge. This it is that opens the whole mind, quickens every faculty of the intellect to do its fit work, that of *knowing*; and therefore, by sure consequence of wisely *uttering* forth.

The courage we desire and prize is not the courage to die decently, but to live manfully. This, when by God's grace it has been given, lies deep in the soul; like genial heat, fosters all other virtues and gifts; without it they could not live.

Clearly connected with this quality of valor, partly as springing from it, partly as protected by it, are the more recognizable qualities of truthfulness and honesty in action.

That mercy can dwell only with valor is an old sentiment.

CARLYLE—*Review of Boswell's Life of Johnson.*

THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 18.]

No. XLIII.—JUNE, 1866.

CONTENTS.

PAGE.

PORTRAIT OF GORHAM D. ABBOTT,* 193

I. PENNSYLVANIA SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, ... 195

Historical Development—Legislation of 1857, ... 205

II. THE OSWEGO NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL, ... 209

History—Design—Course of Study, ... 209

Plan of Building—Perspective—Floors, ... 212

III. ADVICE ON STUDIES AND CONDUCT, ... 215

Aim and Method of Philological Studies—G. B. Niebuhr, ... 216

Knowledge and Wisdom—Robert Southey, ... 221

IV. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 227

Printed Proceedings for 1865, ... 228

V. EDUCATIONAL DUTIES OF THE HOUR, ... 229

Inaugural Discourse of President Greene before the National Teachers' Association, ... 229

VI. OBJECT TEACHING 245

Report of Committee of the National Teachers' Association, ... 245

VII. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM, ... 271

Address by Prof. Edwards of Illinois Normal University, ... 271

VIII. EDUCATION AS AN ELEMENT IN THE POLICY OF RECONSTRUCTION, ... 283

Address by J. P. Wickersham, Principal of State Normal School, Penn., ... 283

IX. NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL BUREAU 299

Address by Andrew Jackson Rickoff, ... 299

X. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, ... 311

Historical Development, ... 311

XI. FORMATION OF CHARACTER, THE MAIN OBJECT OF EDUCATION, ... 323

An Address by M. F. Cowdery, Sandusky, Ohio, ... 323

XII. HOME AND SCHOOL TRAINING ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO, ... 331

The Early Home and School Life of David and Thomas Brainerd in 1718 to 1738, ... 331

XIII. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA, ... 337

1. Elementary Schools—*Continued*, ... 338

XIV. STATE EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS, ... 351

KENTUCKY—TENNESSEE—GEORGIA—NORTH CAROLINA—SOUTH CAROLINA, ... 353

MISSOURI—DELAWARE—TEXAS—ALABAMA—MARYLAND, ... 365

FLORIDA—ARKANSAS—LOUISIANA—MISSISSIPPI—OREGON, ... 381

WEST VIRGINIA—DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, ... 383

KANSAS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION 385

Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 387

Portraits of Isaac F. Goodnow—Henry D. McCarty, ... 387

XV. AMERICAN AND NATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS, ... 389

ASSOCIATION OF CITY AND STATE SUPERINTENDENTS, ... 390

AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION, ... 391

XVI. EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY AND INTELLIGENCE, ... 395

Limitations on the Professional Education of Teachers in Prussia, ... 395

* Deferred to Number for December, 1866.

I. THE PENNSYLVANIA SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

A CHAPTER OF THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN PENNSYLVANIA.*

THE plan of the Normal School System of the State of Pennsylvania was of slow growth. Like most departures from received opinions involving changes in social life, it sprang from one crude but definite idea, the expansion of which into full proportions and the carrying of which into actual operation, has been a portion of the educational life-work of its originator.

About the beginning of the year 1836, Thomas H. Burrowes, the first active State Superintendent, took charge of the Common School System, then recently created by statute, but not yet organized, or in operation to any considerable extent. Almost the first and the main conclusion at which he arrived was, that teaching must take its independent place amongst the regular and learned professions; and during twenty years—from 1837 to 1857—that idea was never lost sight of. It was pressed on every fitting occasion; it was modified to suit the changes and developments of the system, yet always without departure from its fundamental principle; and it was finally matured and embodied in the act of Assembly on the subject, passed on the 20th of May in the year last above named.

In his first elaborate report to the Legislature, dated February 17, 1837, and made after more than a year of close scrutiny of the system, this idea is thus set forth:—

> The business of common school teaching must become a permanent profession —one as respectable and as well compensated, in its sphere, as that of the clergyman, the lawyer, or the doctor—before full justice is done to the rising generation, or to their best friends, the teachers. It must be raised to its proper standard by raising its present professors. They form the only hope of the system. It will not do for it to depend on the occasional condescensions of aspirants to, what are called, the higher professions, though their services are admitted to be as valuable as those of any other class of temporary aspirants. The system must possess and rely on its own class of teachers *for life;* and fortunately they can be obtained.

In pursuance of this idea, the same report recommended the establishment of two institutions—one at the east and the other at the west—for the improvement "in the Art of Teaching" of the incompetent teachers then in charge of the schools; or, as it was more fully expressed in the imperfect but suggestive educational language of that day, "in the knowledge of the proper classification of pupils, of the best kind of text-books, of the method of teaching by question and answer," (which would now be called the oral or the object method,) "and of the other aids to instruction which modern times have discovered." To this it was added, "that six months' attendance at an institution of the kind alluded to, would amply prepare them for the creditable and useful government of pri-

---

* Communicated by Hon. Thos. H. Burrowes.

mary common schools;" that "they might attend these institutions during the summer when most country schools are closed, and return, even in the short space of three months, so much improved that the complement of their full course would be a matter of public interest to the district;" that "after these institutions had thus improved the present generation of teachers, and as the means of the State increased and the utility of the project became more apparent, they could be enlarged and adapted to a more thorough and liberal course of instruction;" and that "they might even be made the means of rewarding and stimulating merit, by permitting each district of the State periodically to have its most promising scholar educated at the public expense."

This project was not adopted by the Legislature, but it distinctly foreshadowed several of the features of the present Normal School law:—(1.) The fundamental principle that teaching was to be a distinct profession and to have its own institutions for professional training; (2.) The right of actual but not fully qualified teachers to repair to these professional schools for further instruction; and (3) that of the districts to send students thither on public account.

The next year added considerably to the plan. In the annual report of February 19, 1838, the two institutions before spoken of are still urged; but only as temporary and leading to the "Practical Institute," now, for the first time, proposed, as a distinct and permanent grade of institution in the common school series. "Five" of these are supposed to be then or ultimately necessary; and it is said that in addition to the branches of our ordinary schools, the studies "ought to be Grammar, Geography, History, Mathematics, Chemistry and Mineralogy, Natural History and Botany, Moral Philosophy with the Evidences of Christianity, &c.;" that "it is not meant that these branches or any others that might be added, should be taught in the ordinary manner, or as if to mere learners for their own benefit; but that instruction in them should be coupled with directions for the best manner of imparting them to others;" and, that "thus the most important branch would, as it should, be the *art of instruction*;" that there should be "six professors in each institute;" that "the mode of instruction should be by lectures, with subsequent examinations, recitations in classes, model schools, &c.;" that "to teachers attending a certain time, passing an examination and sustaining a good moral character while in the institute, a diploma should be given, with a certificate of the exact grade of professional qualification possessed;" and that these schools should become permanent for the thorough education of teachers, or as the report expresses it, "after improving the present generation of teachers," "shall by degrees rise and widen into practical institutes, such as have been described, after this temporary purpose shall have been accomplished."

Thus were added to the original plan the following features, all of which are in the Normal Act of 1857:—(4.) The necessity of increasing very considerably the course of study; (5,) of rendering the schools a permanent portion of the school system and increasing their number; (6,) of making their instructions strictly professional; (7,) of instruction by means of model schools; (8,) of issuing diplomas designating the exact professional acquirements of the holder; (9,) and even fixing the number of professors to be employed.

In the beginning of 1839, Mr. Burrowes ceased to be State Superintendent; and, during the next ten years, he took no part in State school affairs, except by occasional articles in the local press and by attending the few State and

other conventions that were held. Neither was there any effectual step taken, in that period, toward the establishment of Normal Schools, though there was an almost unbroken succession of indorsement of the project by the heads of the system.

The general school law was revised and somewhat amended in 1848 and 1849; the chief advance being that of rendering the acceptance of the common school obligatory upon every part of the State,—it having previously been discretionary with a majority of the votes of each district, and liable to rejection at the end of every third year. The consequence of this decided measure was the awakening of general attention to the subject of schools, the first important manifestation of which was the holding of an educational State convention, at Harrisburg, on the 16th and 17th of January, 1850, of the business committee of which Mr. Burrowes was chairman. By this body it was resolved that two State Normal Schools were necessary and ought to be established by the Legislature. In its address, drawn by Mr. Burrowes, it was also recommended that a separate State superintendency, the County superintendency, and a State Educational Periodical, should be established.

Within the next seven years, all these measures were adopted, but in a different order from that just stated, though probably in the one best calculated to be effective. In 1852 the Pennsylvania School Journal was commenced. This agency, with the discussions of the State Teachers' Association, established shortly afterwards, and the agitation of the question by teachers and others, produced the county superintendency in 1854; and the separation of the school from the State Department and the passage of the present Normal School law both followed in 1857. It is with the last named measure, however, that this narrative has to do.

Up to this point and for several years after, Mr. Burrowes had not only strenuously advocated, in common with others, the establishment and support, by the State, of Normal Schools, but had mistakenly relied upon the Legislature for the perfection of the common school system, in all its details of operation as well as in this great leading feature. At every meeting of the State Association he presented either a report, or a resolution, or the form of a petition, or a bill for a law on the subject. But in 1854 he at length began to realize the true doctrine,—that the teacher must work for and improve his own profession,—so plainly indicated by the result of the measures about that time going into operation and all emanating from the associated effort and the discussions of the profession itself. This era in the progress of the system is thus described in an address delivered by him, "On the Past, the Present, and the Future of the Teacher of Pennsylvania," at the Pottsville meeting of the State Association, in August, 1854:—

From 1834—when the first common school law of the State was passed—up to 1852, eighteen long years, little was effected for the improvement of the schools. Money was lavished, plans were devised, the system was put into operation, and the people of the State anxiously awaited the expected success. But little success came. The friends of the system labored and hoped, till hope was weary; and then they began to fear that the patience of the people would become exhausted before the proper remedy should be discovered and applied; for, that there must be a remedy their unfaltering faith in the propriety and practicability of general education assured them. While thus waiting between hope and fear, in 1852, the teacher—he who had never moved before, he who had been regarded as a mere secondary circumstance in the general discussion

mary common schools;" that "they might attend these institutions during the summer when most country schools are closed, and return, even in the short space of three months, so much improved that the complement of their full course would be a matter of public interest to the district;" that "after these institutions had thus improved the present generation of teachers, and as the means of the State increased and the utility of the project became more apparent, they could be enlarged and adapted to a more thorough and liberal course of instruction;" and that "they might even be made the means of rewarding and stimulating merit, by permitting each district of the State periodically to have its most promising scholar educated at the public expense."

This project was not adopted by the Legislature, but it distinctly foreshadowed several of the features of the present Normal School law:—(1.) The fundamental principle that teaching was to be a distinct profession and to have its own institutions for professional training; (2.) The right of actual but not fully qualified teachers to repair to these professional schools for further instruction; and (3) that of the districts to send students thither on public account.

The next year added considerably to the plan. In the annual report of February 19, 1838, the two institutions before spoken of are still urged; but only as temporary and leading to the "Practical Institute," now, for the first time, proposed, as a distinct and permanent grade of institution in the common school series. "Five" of these are supposed to be then or ultimately necessary; and it is said that in addition to the branches of our ordinary schools, the studies "ought to be Grammar, Geography, History, Mathematics, Chemistry and Mineralogy, Natural History and Botany, Moral Philosophy with the Evidences of Christianity, &c.;" that "it is not meant that these branches or any others that might be added, should be taught in the ordinary manner, or as if to mere learners for their own benefit; but that instruction in them should be coupled with directions for the best manner of imparting them to others;" and, that "thus the most important branch would, as it should, be the *art of instruction*;" that there should be "six professors in each institute;" that "the mode of instruction should be by lectures, with subsequent examinations, recitations in classes, model schools, &c.;" that "to teachers attending a certain time, passing an examination and sustaining a good moral character while in the institute, a diploma should be given, with a certificate of the exact grade of professional qualification possessed;" and that these schools should become permanent for the thorough education of teachers, or as the report expresses it, "after improving the present generation of teachers," "shall by degrees rise and widen into practical institutes, such as have been described, after this temporary purpose shall have been accomplished."

Thus were added to the original plan the following features, all of which are in the Normal Act of 1857:—(4.) The necessity of increasing very considerably the course of study; (5,) of rendering the schools a permanent portion of the school system and increasing their number; (6.) of making their instructions strictly professional; (7,) of instruction by means of model schools; (8,) of issuing diplomas designating the exact professional acquirements of the holder; (9,) and even fixing the number of professors to be employed.

In the beginning of 1839, Mr. Burrowes ceased to be State Superintendent; and, during the next ten years, he took no part in State school affairs, except by occasional articles in the local press and by attending the few State and

other conventions that were held. Neither was there any effectual step taken, in that period, toward the establishment of Normal Schools, though there was an almost unbroken succession of indorsement of the project by the heads of the system.

The general school law was revised and somewhat amended in 1848 and 1849; the chief advance being that of rendering the acceptance of the common school obligatory upon every part of the State,—it having previously been discretionary with a majority of the votes of each district, and liable to rejection at the end of every third year. The consequence of this decided measure was the awakening of general attention to the subject of schools, the first important manifestation of which was the holding of an educational State convention, at Harrisburg, on the 16th and 17th of January, 1850, of the business committee of which Mr. Burrowes was chairman. By this body it was resolved that two State Normal Schools were necessary and ought to be established by the Legislature. In its address, drawn by Mr. Burrowes, it was also recommended that a separate State superintendency, the County superintendency, and a State Educational Periodical, should be established.

Within the next seven years, all these measures were adopted, but in a different order from that just stated, though probably in the one best calculated to be effective. In 1852 the Pennsylvania School Journal was commenced. This agency, with the discussions of the State Teachers' Association, established shortly afterwards, and the agitation of the question by teachers and others, produced the county superintendency in 1854; and the separation of the school from the State Department and the passage of the present Normal School law both followed in 1857. It is with the last named measure, however, that this narrative has to do.

Up to this point and for several years after, Mr. Burrowes had not only strenuously advocated, in common with others, the establishment and support, by the State, of Normal Schools, but had mistakenly relied upon the Legislature for the perfection of the common school system, in all its details of operation as well as in this great leading feature. At every meeting of the State Association he presented either a report, or a resolution, or the form of a petition, or a bill for a law on the subject. But in 1854 he at length began to realize the true doctrine,—that the teacher must work for and improve his own profession,—so plainly indicated by the result of the measures about that time going into operation and all emanating from the associated effort and the discussions of the profession itself. This era in the progress of the system is thus described in an address delivered by him, "On the Past, the Present, and the Future of the Teacher of Pennsylvania," at the Pottsville meeting of the State Association, in August, 1854:—

From 1834—when the first common school law of the State was passed—up to 1852, eighteen long years, little was effected for the improvement of the schools. Money was lavished, plans were devised, the system was put into operation, and the people of the State anxiously awaited the expected success. But little success came. The friends of the system labored and hoped, till hope was weary; and then they began to fear that the patience of the people would become exhausted before the proper remedy should be discovered and applied; for, that there must be a remedy their unfaltering faith in the propriety and practicability of general education assured them. While thus waiting between hope and fear, in 1852, the teacher—he who had never moved before, he who had been regarded as a mere secondary circumstance in the general discussion

of systems and school-houses and school-books—he stepped forward and said, "I will improve myself! What are your systems, or your houses, or your directors, or your money, or your books, or even your scholars, without me?" "The schoolmaster" was then, for the first time, really "abroad." He formed his township and county and State associations, for mutual improvement and support; he enlisted the agency of the press all over the land; he operated on parents and directors and tax-payers, till finally he even made his voice reach the halls of legislation; and now, he stands forth, the master of his own destiny and the savior of our noble system of education.

Other sufficient cause for the great revolution in whose midst we are, can no man point out. From the first year of the system, directors and legislators and superintendents and governors, cheered on by the whole body of its friends, had been laboring for its improvement and perfection, to the best of their might and their knowledge, but with scarcely any result. Whereas, from the instant the teacher took his own business into his own hands, there has been a degree of progress unparalleled in the past, and unerringly pointing to complete success in the future.

And yet, with this clear perception of the true principle, it is somewhat remarkable that the writer did not apply it at once to the independent, but groped on for nearly two years longer in pursuit of the purely State Normal, School. But realizing the unconquerable hostility of the Legislature to the latter, he gradually imbibed the idea, that the law of human affairs, which imposes upon each profession the establishment and support of schools for the training of its own members, must be as applicable to that of teaching as to the other learned avocations. The result was a determination to attempt the application of this fundamental principle, as it was felt to be; and also to watch the course of events for an opportunity. And the general condition of the system, as well as local circumstances, seemed to favor the project.

The county superintendency, with the other vitalizing provisions of the revised and much improved school law of 1854, went into operation in the latter part of that year: Every where over the State the effect was almost instantaneous and beneficial. This was especially the case in Lancaster county, where, by the selection of a gentleman of large experience as a teacher, remarkable energy of character and great devotion to the school cause—Mr. James P. Wickersham—the wisdom and benefits of the measure were clearly shown.

Early in 1853, the County Institute had been introduced into the county, mainly by the efforts of Mr. Burrowes, and had been very successful. During the month of November, 1854, and in order to vary the plan and bring the benefits of the institute home to every part of the territory committed to his care, the County Superintendent held a series of lesser institutes—one at Hinkletown, one at Strasburg, and one at Mountjoy. At each of these Mr. Burrowes was present part of the time. At the Hinkletown Institute one of the members, (Mr. E. G. Groff,) an experienced and intelligent teacher, submitted to him and probably to others, a resolution requesting the County Superintendent, then in the chair, "to take measures, during the next summer, to hold a three months' institute, for all such teachers of the county as desired to attend." This resolution was offered by Mr. J. C. Martin, was advocated by Mr. Burrowes and others, and was adopted unanimously. It is believed that the County Superintendent had not been consulted on the subject before it was offered; but it is very certain, from the manner in which, as President, he received the proposition, that it did not then meet with his cordial concurrence.

After the final adjournment of the institute, and during an interview which

extended to midnight, between the County Superintendent and Mr. Burrowes, at the house of the latter, the whole affair was very thoroughly canvassed. The opposition of the former, which seemed to rest on a supposed prematurity in the movement, gave way. The details of the undertaking, then first resolved to be called a Normal Institute, were to a great extent settled, and the time and place of meeting and even some of the assistant instructors selected. It was to have been held in the city of Lancaster; but, as soon as the citizens of Millersville, a village in the vicinity, heard of the project, an offer was made by them, which changed the place for meeting.

Mr. L. M. Hobbs, an intelligent and faithful teacher, had been for several seasons in the exercise of his profession at Millersville. Mainly at his instigation and by his efforts, a brick academy building of considerable size and two stories in height, had just been there completed, and its trustees were inquiring for a proper person to take charge of it. At this juncture, it was suggested to them, by Mr. Hobbs it is believed, that it would be good policy as well as beneficial to the cause of education, to grant the use of the building to the County Superintendent for the intended three months' institute. The proposition was not only adopted, but a subscription, by the good people of the place and vicinity, of $1,000, was made toward the expenses, if the offer should be accepted. The offer was of course accepted.

Such was the origin of the first three months' Normal Institute of Lancaster county and such the means by which it was located at Millersville. It was there held from the middle of April to the middle of July, 1855; and, guided by the energy, tact, and ability of County Superintendent Wickersham, who was its Principal, and sustained by an able corps of assistants, it was perfectly successful. It met a want of the time and well supplied the rapidly increasing demand for professional instruction amongst the teachers of the county.

To such an extent was this impression produced that, at its close, Professor John F. Stoddard, the superintendent of Wayne county, and who had ably discharged the duties of chief assistant in the corps of professors, was strongly urged to continue the institution as a permanent private Normal School,—Mr. Wickersham having previously been "invited to take charge of it, but declined," as he himself states. Mr. Burrowes was, as usual in such cases, applied to for his opinion as to the propriety of this step; and a public meeting was called to hear his views upon the point, and also in reference to the expediency of enlarging the building. He attended and took decided ground in favor of both measures. He gave it as his opinion that they would result in the establishment of a permanent public Normal School, by the combined efforts of the teachers and the friends of education; that the prospect for the establishment of purely State Normal Schools was not promising, while the demand for professional schools was rapidly increasing, and that therefore the chance of support was encouraging; but that even if the attempt to sustain a distinct Normal School should not succeed, the institution, with its enlarged buildings and able teaching power, could not fail of success, as a county academy or high school of the most elevated class. Both propositions were adopted.

At this meeting County Superintendent Wickersham was not present; neither was it understood that the project met with his approval.

The building was enlarged, and in due time the institution was re-opened as a private Normal School, with Mr. Stoddard as Principal, assisted by Mr. Ed-

ward Brooks, who has ever since remained connected with it and is now its Principal elect, and a full corps of instructors. It again met with full success.

The next spring a second three months' Normal Institute was held in the Millersville building, commencing on the 14th of April, 1856, under the direction of the County Superintendent,—the proper faculty giving way, for the time, and acting under him. In the latter part of June, however, Mr. Stoddard resigned the permanent principalship, but the other instructors remained as before.

About this time, but entirely previous to the period when the County Superintendent had any permanent connection with the Millersville School, it was, that the idea of establishing Normal Schools without at first asking any pecuniary aid from the State and to be independent of State appointment or patronage, became finally matured in the mind of Mr. Burrowes. Feeling, however, the necessity for State authority in order to give professional and official value to the diplomas, it was determined, if possible, to procure a law to authorize these institutions to issue diplomas, in like manner as in literary and other scientific and professional colleges, and also to exempt the teachers holding such diplomas from examination in the branches enumerated in them, by County Superintendents.

Mr. Wickersham was amongst the first persons, if not the very first, to whom this settled purpose was made known. This was done on the way to the meetings of the State Teachers' Association and the State Convention of County Superintendents, both of which took place at Williamsport, in August, 1856. No decided expression of opinion on the subject was given by him at the time, which was by no means surprising,—all the leading educationists being still wedded to the hope of obtaining Normal Schools at the expense of the State. That he did not at once concur, is shown by the fact, that while describing, as County Superintendent, in the Superintendents' Convention, the condition and wants of the system in Lancaster, he reported, that "State Normal Schools still remain the great want of the system." But he seems soon afterwards to have embraced the idea, for it is plainly set forth in his annual report, as County Superintendent, to the School Department, dated September 23, 1856. It is remarkable, too, as indicative of the coming change in the educational mind of the State, that no strong demand was made, by either of the meetings at Williamsport, for State Normal Schools.

At the conclusion of these meetings it was, that Mr. Burrowes first openly announced the intention to abandon the demand upon the Legislature for State Normal Schools at the public expense and to be wholly controlled by public authority, and to advocate the establishment of the kind of institutions that have since been authorized and established. This was done when the present Governor of the Commonwealth, the Hon. A. G. Curtin, then Secretary of State and Superintendent of Common Schools, the Hon. H. C. Hickok, then Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools and subsequently Chief State Superintendent, and himself, were called on for some closing remarks, by the members of the conventions.

Thus was first announced the distinctive feature of the plan, (10,) that Normal Schools, like other professional institutions, ought not to be established by and at the expense of the State, and should be no further controlled by the State than is necessary to give value and authority to their diplomas.

To return to the connection of the County Superintendent with Millersville:—On the resignation of Mr. Stoddard as first Principal of that institution, there was considerable difficulty in procuring a fit successor, and some time elapsed before that object was attained. Mr. Burrowes was called on at once by a committee of the trustees to procure for them a Principal, that being the first intimation he had of the change. He undertook to do the best he could for them, and after as much deliberation as the shortness of the time permitted, offered the position to a gentleman residing at a distance. He declined after considerable hesitation The only person consulted on the occasion was the late Bishop Potter, who could afford no aid. Driven at length, by these failures and the urgency of the case, to act without further loss of time, he determined, if possible, to place in the position a gentleman whose local influence and energy of character, it was felt, might sustain the institution and make it successful. An interview with Mr. Wickersham, the County Superintendent, was obtained, and that gentleman informed that a principal for the Normal School must then be selected and that he was to be selected from a list of ten persons which had been prepared, though the list was not shown him as a whole. The names were read off, one by one; the fitness of each was freely discussed; and, successively, the first nine were rejected, for what were felt, at the time, to be good and sufficient reasons. The last name was then read. It was that of Mr. Wickersham himself. When announced he sprang to his feet and declared that that could not be. The matter, however, was freely discussed. On the one side, the critical position of the school, the vast importance of the success of the attempt to the school system, the opportunity to do good and gain high professional reputation, and the probability of the institution being recognized by the State, were urged. On the other, it was objected, that the position could not be accepted without resignation of the county superintendency; that good was being done in that office; that a sure opportunity to gain reputation was there presented, which was not the case in the Normal School, whose success was yet doubtful; that it was asking too much to give up a certainty for an uncertainty; and that acceptance would expose to the charge, or at least to the suspicion, of having been instrumental in effecting the vacancy in order to fill it. The whole subject was considered in all its bearings; and the result was, that time should be taken till the beginning of the following week to consider the matter.

The position was accepted; and the consequence was, in one respect at least, as Mr. Wickersham expected. He was accused of having been concerned in the removal of his predecessor to make room for himself; but this statement, which has purposely been made full to meet that point, shows that the charge was unfounded, for it was with the utmost difficulty he was induced to agree to the proposition at all.

This acceptance, as expected, at once restored the school from a state of paralysis to one of decided and increasing prosperity, which it has ever since enjoyed.

Mr. Wickersham's resignation of the county superintendency took effect on the 1st of October, 1856; but, during the interval between the resignation of Mr. Stoddard, which happened some time in the preceding June, and that date, he acted also as the Principal of the Normal School, as far as his public official duties permitted.

In the meantime, the proposition by Mr. Burrowes at Williamsport had not fallen out of the mind of State Superintendent Curtin; particularly as the same idea had been presented by him again, in that gentleman's presence, at the Harrisburg meeting of the State Association in the latter part of December, 1856, in these words:—

The Normal School became more indispensable every year. What the form of it should be, he was not now prepared to say. Perhaps it might be as well to follow public opinion as indicated by the establishment of *so many* teachers' schools by private means, and for the State to recognize proper institutions of this kind under some general and safe law on the subject.

Accordingly, little surprise was felt when called on, a short time afterwards, by the State Superintendent, to furnish that gentleman, for his forth-coming annual report—made to the Legislature of 1857—a brief statement of the plan proposed. The request was, of course, complied with and the statement was incorporated into the report. It is as follows,—after enumerating the advantages and disadvantages of the purely State and the purely Private Normal School:—

A combination of the best elements of the State and the Private school, and at the same time an avoidance of their disadvantages, might be obtained by the enactment of a law of which the following is a synopsis:—

The State to be (11) divided into ten or more Normal School districts, each to contain one school. The establishment, government, powers, and duties of the schools to be uniform in all the districts, and to be (12) regulated by the general provisions of the law. The schools to be erected and governed, in accordance with the general law, (13,) by private but associated enterprise; to contain halls, class-rooms, and apparatus, (14,) with a School of Practice, and the necessary facilities of instruction (15) for not less than three hundred students each; and only to be (16) recognized as schools for the training of teachers, under the law, when completed in conformity to all its provisions, after (17) inspection by the Governor, or such other officers as the Legislature please to designate. The course and term of studies, to be arranged by the joint action of the (18) proper public authorities and the principals of all the schools. Each Normal School to receive one or two students annually from each common school district, at a price for tuition to be fixed by law, and to be paid either by the State or the district. Such students to be designated by the directors of the proper district, from amongst its most meritorious and best prepared pupils desirous of acquiring the art and science of teaching. (19.) Examinations to be made and diplomas granted by all the principals of the District Normal Schools, with the concurrence and aid of the proper State officers. (20.) Such diplomas to be conclusive evidence of the degree of scholarship specified in them; (21,) but no certificate of competency in the Art of Teaching to be given until after two years' successful practical experience, (22,) certified by the directors by whom the candidate was employed and by the County Superintendent of the proper county.

Here the matter again rested, but not long; for late in the session of 1857, its originator was requested by the State Superintendent to draft a bill, in conformity with his plan, to be laid before the Legislature. He complied, and so fully had the details become developed in his mind, that in one day he wrote the bill, though of considerable length and involving much detail, and at once sent it to Harrisburg. So hastily was this done and so urgent the demand, that he had not time to make a careful copy. He also filled what ought to have blanks, as to size, numbers, &c., suggestively, and accompanied the document with a request that the authorities would modify these portions according to their better judgment. But this was not done; and the bill was passed nearly as it left his hands, the only important addition being a section authorizing the schools to accept donations, bequests, &c.

This bill was, in a manner, laughed through the Legislature, as a visionary project that could never be carried into effect; but, as it asked no money from the State Treasury, it was allowed to pass. The author patiently bore the ridicule and the blame of its paternity—neither of which were spared—satisfied that the measure would finally vindicate itself. During its helpless infancy there was no one to interfere with his parental responsibility; and now, as confident as ever of its ultimate triumph, he desires no partner.

The origin and progress of the plan being thus traced from the first crude idea in 1837, to its legalized form in 1857, the reader is requested to compare the leading features, herein-before numerically designated, of the one with the enacted provisions of the other, and then to decide for himself the question of the controlling agencies in its origin, growth, and completion.

The law being thus in existence, the authorities of the Millersville School—its Principal included—were amongst those who complained most of the large requirements of the act. Still, they manfully and at once addressed themselves to the work of meeting them. On the 29th of June, 1857, at a meeting of the trustees and stockholders, it was resolved,—

That it is expedient so to enlarge the grounds attached to the school, and to make such additions to the buildings connected therewith, as to bring the school within the requirements of the act of Assembly, approved the 20th of May, 1857.

These additions and enlargements were neither slight nor easily effected. The school then had but four acres of ground attached to it; the law required ten. It contained accommodations for less than 200 students; the law demanded sufficient for 300. Its lecture hall scarcely seated 500 persons; the law exacted seating space for 1,000; and it had no Model School, whereas the law called for "one or more," with not less than 100 pupils.

In regard to the Model School it is somewhat curious to remark, that though forced upon the Millersville School by the Normal School law, (Mr. Wickersham stating to the State Superintendent in December, 1857, that "we have no model school at present, but design organizing one under the State Normal School law,") yet it is the department from which that institution and its Principal have acquired more credit, perhaps, than from any other. Its Model School is now, beyond all question, the most complete, best arranged, and most successful any where known, and is wholly the work of Mr. Wickersham.

All these difficulties were to be overcome; and as usual Mr. Burrowes was called on for his advice and aid. He met the trustees and spoke cheering words. A general meeting of the friends of the enterprise in the whole district (Lancaster, York, and Lebanon) was recommended; which was held with good effect, not only in additional subscription to the stock, but in making known the nature and merits of the enterprise. A plan for enlarging the lecture hall and recitation rooms was also devised and other aid afforded.

The law also provided that it "should not take effect till at least four such schools, in as many different districts, shall have complied and been recognized in accordance with the provisions of this act." The Millersville School, being the first and only one ready, could not be recognized till its friends should procure a modification of this feature of the law. This was done at a subsequent session of the Legislature; and it shows that the act was as little cast on the model, as it was specially designed to promote the interests of that particular institution.

But the financial panic of 1857 delayed the completion of all the requisite additions; and it was not till the 2d of December, 1859, that the institution was recognized under the act, as the Normal School of the Second District, being the first of its class in the State, though two others have since also been recognized. The Inspectors appointed on the occasion, by Governor Packer, were Ex-Governor Pollock, Wm. M. Hiester, Secretary of the Commonwealth, A. G. Curtin, Ex-secretary of the Commonwealth and Superintendent of Common Schools, and John L. Atlee, M. D., of Lancaster, with County Superintendents Blair of York, Houck of Lebanon, and Evans of Lancaster, as *ex-officio* Inspectors—State Superintendent Hickok being present and supervising the proceedings.

Of the public meeting which took place on this occasion, as well as of the general meeting in the summer of 1857, before spoken of, Mr. Burrowes was President. At the last named of these, State Superintendent Hickok, for the first time, announced the name of the author of the Normal School Act of 1857; and at the other, Mr. Wickersham, after stating the same fact, added:—

The peculiar features of this law were, no doubt, the result of a careful study of American institutions, as well as of the conditions necessary to secure in a Pennsylvania community a successful school.

Having thus traced this matter from its origin, it is now claimed to be fairly deducible from the facts stated,—

1. That the leading features of the Normal School System of Pennsylvania are an outgrowth of the social condition and educational wants of the State.

2. That to Thomas H. Burrowes solely belongs the credit for having first observed the need of such a system, regulated its details, and put it into practical form.

3. That the act of Assembly on the subject was not suggested by or adapted to any particular institution in existence at the time.

4. That the first school recognized under that act could not have been the model after which the act was framed, having been previously destitute of some and far below several others of its essential requirements.

5. That in its establishment, the Normal School at Millersville was not the mere result of individual talent, or effort, but of the spirit infused into the teachers of the county of Lancaster by the agencies of the school law of 1854 and others previously in operation.

6. That to the part taken by E. G. Groff, J. C. Martin, and the other members of the meeting at Hinkletown, in originating the first three months' Normal Institute,—to the agency of L. M. Hobbs in promoting the erection of the building and the offer of its use,—to the citizens of Millersville and vicinity for that offer and the grant of assistance,—and to the efforts of Prof. J. C. Stoddard in establishing the institution on a permanent basis,—are due much of the honor of the foundation of the present Normal School, at Millersville.

6. That to the skill and energy of James P. Wickersham, as an executive officer under the law, the success of the Millersville School is greatly due, and that therefore to him also the success of the Normal School law is largely attributable.

7. That the success of the Pennsylvania Normal School is but the accomplishment, thus far, of the prediction made at the commencement of the common school system—that teaching must be, in Pennsylvania, a separate, regular, learned, independent, and permanent profession.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE DUE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR THE COMMON SCHOOLS OF THE STATE, APPROVED MAY 20, 1857.

SECTION I. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in General Assembly met, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same*, That for the purposes of the following act, the counties of Delaware, Chester, Bucks, and Montgomery, shall form the First Normal School-District; Lancaster, York, and Lebanon, the Second; Berks, Schuylkill, and Lehigh, the Third; Northampton, Carbon, Monroe, Pike, Luzerne, and Wayne, the Fourth; Wyoming, Sullivan, Susquehanna, Bradford, Lycoming, and Tioga, the Fifth; Dauphin, Northumberland, Columbia, Montour, Union, Snyder, Perry, Juniata, and Mifflin, the Sixth; Cumberland, Adams, Franklin, Fulton, Bedford, Huntingdon, and Blair, the Seventh; Centre, Clinton, Clearfield, Elk, Potter, McKean, Jefferson, Clarion, Forest, and Warren, the Eighth; Cambria, Indiana, Armstrong, and Westmoreland, the Ninth; Washington, Greene, Fayette, and Somerset, the Tenth; Alleghany, Butler, and Beaver, the Eleventh; and Lawrence, Mercer, Venango, Crawford, and Erie, the Twelfth.

SEC. II. That when any number of citizens of this State, not less than thirteen, shall, as contributors or stockholders, erect and establish a School for the professional training of young men and women as Teachers for the Common Schools of the State, in accordance with the provisions of this act, such School may become entitled to its benefits, in the manner hereinafter set forth: *Provided however*, That not more than one such School shall, at the same time, become and continue to be entitled to such benefits in each of the foregoing Normal School Districts; and that this act shall not take effect till at least four such Schools, in as many different Districts, shall have complied and been recognized in accordance with the provisions of this act.

SEC. III. That the pecuniary affairs of each of said Schools shall be managed and the general control exercised by a Board of Trustees, (whose officers shall be a President and Secretary who shall, and a Treasurer who shall not, be members of said Board,) to be chosen by the contributors or stockholders on the first Monday in May annually; but no contributor or stockholder shall have more than five votes at the election of Trustees; and no religious test or qualification shall be required, to entitle any one to become a contributor, stockholder, trustee, professor, or student in any of said Schools.

SEC. IV. That after the said Schools shall have been recognized under the provisions of this act, it shall be lawful for them to receive, hold, and use, under the direction of their Trustees aforesaid, any devise, bequest, gift, grant, or endowment of property, whether real or personal, which may be made to them; and the same shall be so applied by the Trustees as shall, in the opinion of a majority of them, increase the efficiency and usefulness of the said Schools, subject, however, to any terms, conditions, or restrictions which may be attached to such devise, bequest, gift, grant, or endowment, not inconsistent with the spirit and purposes of this act; and the said Trustees shall have authority to bring suit in their name as Trustees, and do all other things necessary for the recovery, use, and application of the same.

SEC. V. That the Trustees of each of said Schools, after being recognized under the provisions of this act, shall annually, in the month of June, furnish, under oath or affirmation of the President of the Board of Trustees, to the Superintendent of Common Schools, a full account of its pecuniary condition, showing income and debts, if any, salaries and other expenses, and dividends declared, together with the number of students admitted and graduated, the branches taught, the apparatus procured, the improvements effected, and the changes made during the preceding year, and such other information as said Superintendent of Common Schools may, from time to time, by his general circular to all of said Schools, require to be furnished; and each of said Schools shall always be open to the visitation and inspection of said Superintendent of Common Schools, and of the County Superintendents of all the counties within its Normal School District.

SEC. VI. That to entitle it to the benefits and privileges of this act, each of said Normal Schools shall possess the following requisites:—

1. Suitable buildings as hereinafter provided, and an area of ground appurtenant thereto, of not less than ten acres in one tract, the whole of which shall

be prepared and used as a place for gymnastic exercises and healthful recreation by students, except so much thereof as shall be necessarily occupied by the buildings, botanical and other gardens, and such other purposes as shall be plainly promotive of the great objects of the institution.

2. The buildings shall contain a hall of sufficient size to comfortably seat at least one thousand adults; with class-rooms, lodging rooms, and refectories for at least three hundred students; all properly constructed and arranged as to light, heat, and ventilation, so as to secure the health and comfort of the occupants, with proper provision for physical exercise during inclement weather.

3. Each School shall contain a library room for the accumulation of books for the free use of the students, a cabinet for specimens and preparations, to illustrate the natural and other sciences, [and] such apparatus and philosophical instruments as are indispensable for the same purpose.

4. Each School shall have at least six Professors of liberal education and known ability in their respective departments, namely:—One of Orthography, Reading, and Elocution; one of Writing, Drawing, and Book-keeping; one of Arithmetic and the higher branches of Mathematics; one of Geography and History; one of Grammar and English Literature; and one of Theory and Practice of Teaching; together with such Tutors and Assistants therein, and such Professors of Natural, Mental, and Moral Science, Languages, and Literature, as the condition of the School and the number of students may require.

5. The Principal of each Normal School shall be a Professor of such one of the six indispensable branches as may be assigned to him by the Trustees, and he shall be charged with the whole Discipline and interior government of the School, in conformity with such regulations as shall, from time to time, be adopted by the Trustees, and approved by the State Superintendent of Common Schools.

6. Each School shall have attached to it one or more Schools for Practice or Model Schools, with not less than one hundred pupils from the children of the vicinity, and so arranged that the students of the Normal School shall therein acquire a practical knowledge of the Art of Teaching under the instruction of their proper Professors.

7. The qualifications for admission in and the course and direction [duration] of the term of study in all the Schools shall be such as shall be approved by and at a meeting of all the Principals of the Normal Schools then recognized under this act; such meeting to be called from time to time, as he may deem expedient, by the State Superintendent of Common Schools, and to take place at one or other of the Annual Examinations hereinafter provided for, except the first meeting, which shall be held at such time and place as he may indicate; and at such meetings the acts of the majority of the Principals shall be binding on all the Schools in reference to the qualifications for admission and the course and term of study, when approved by the State Superintendent of Common Schools.

8. The Text-Books to be used in each of said Schools shall be such as may be selected by its proper Professors, with the approbation of the Trustees thereof.

9. Each of said Schools shall admit when required, and retain during the whole term of study, if so long they behave themselves well, one student annually, alternately male and female, from each Common School District within the counties composing its Normal District, at a cost of not more than five dollars each for the term or quarter of eleven weeks, to be paid in advance by the Board of Directors sending them; said students to be selected after public examination by said Directors from amongst those, if males, of the age of sixteen or upwards, and if females, of not less than fourteen years, who manifest a desire and a capacity to exercise the Profession of Teaching, preference being always given to those of the best moral character, most studious habits, and greatest proficiency in knowledge; but no one to be so admitted unless proficient in all the studies required for entrance into the Normal Schools by their general regulations, adopted under article seven of this section.

10. Students other than those admitted on district account, to pay such sums for tuition as the Trustees shall determine; but in the admission of such students the preference always to be given to such as are designed for the Profession of Teaching, and as between private and public students, a like preference to be given to the latter in case of insufficiency of room to accommodate all who apply; and no difference in the charge for boarding and lodging to be made in favor of any class of students.

11. Teachers who shall have taught a Common School in their proper Normal District during a full school term of their Common School District next preceding their application, may be admitted for any term not less than one month into their proper Normal School, at a charge for instruction not to exceed two dollars per month; and shall pay the same price for boarding and lodging, if there be room for them, as other students, and shall have the same care and facilities for study in proportion to their advancement.

12. Examinations for graduation shall be made in each Normal School by not less than three nor more than five Principals of the Schools recognized under this act, who shall annually be designated for that purpose by the State Superintendent of Common Schools, and assemble in each School at a time to be designated by him; and said Annual Examinations shall take place in the presence of the Superintendents of all the Counties embraced in the proper Normal School District.

13. The Faculty of each Normal School shall have the power to expel any student attending on district account for improper conduct; which expulson and the cause of it shall forthwith be certified in writing by the Principal to the Directors of the District from which the expelled student was admitted; whereupon such Directors shall have the right to supply the vacancy thus created.

SEC. VII. That when the Trustees of any School desirous of claiming the privileges of this act shall make application to the State Superintendent of Common Schools, it shall be the duty of the Superintendent of Common Schools, together with four other competent and disinterested persons, to be chosen by him with the consent of the Governor, and all the Superintendents of the Counties in the Normal School District in which such School shall be situated, on receiving due notice from the Department of Common Schools, personally and at the same time, to visit and carefully inspect such School; and if, after through examination thereof, and of its by-laws, rules, and regulations, and of its general arrangement and facilities for instruction, they or at least two-thirds of them shall approve the same, and find that they fully come up to the provisions of this act, in that case and in no other they shall certify the same to the Department of Common Schools, with their opinions that such School has fully complied with the provisions of this act, as far as can be done before going into operation under this act; whereupon the State Superintendent shall forthwith recognize such School as a State Normal School under this act, and give public notice thereof in two newspapers in each county in the proper Normal School District, and thenceforward this act shall go into full operation, so far as regards such School, without any further proceedings: *Provided however*, As herein-before set forth, that no such notice shall be given until at least three other Normal Schools, in as many different Normal Districts, shall have been similarly inspected, approved, and certified to the Department of Common Schools; and if, upon due inspection, any School so applying shall be found insufficient under this act, said Board of Inspectors shall so report to the Superintendent of Common Schools, who shall thereupon inform the Trustees thereof of such adverse report.

SEC. VIII. That if two or more Schools apply in the same District to be recognized under this act at the same time, all of them shall be visited in the manner prescribed by the next preceding section, and the one found to possess the largest and best accommodations and arrangements, to give effect to the purposes of this act, shall be preferred, and so certified, if it fully come up to the requirements of this act; and if two or more Schools in the same District be found to possess equal accommodations and arrangements fully up to the requirements of this act, in that case the one nearest to the center of the proper Normal School District shall be preferred, and certified for recognition to the Department of Common Schools; and if one or more of the Schools thus applying for recognition give notice to the Department of Common Schools, with reasonable assurance, that it or they are not now ready for inspection under the seventh section of this act, but will be within the term of six months from and after the date of such notice, in that case none of the Applicant Schools shall be inspected in such District till such time within said six months when all shall be prepared for inspection, when like proceedings shall take place as have been prescribed in the preceding part of this and the seventh section.

SEC. IX. That the Board of Principals who shall examine the candidates for graduation in any of the Normal Schools under this act shall issue Certificates,

to be signed by all of them, to all such students of the full course as two-thirds of the Board shall approve, setting forth expressly the branches in which each has been found duly qualified, which Certificates must embrace all the branches enumerated in the fourth article of the fifth section of this act, including the Theory but not including the Practice of Teaching, and may also embrace any additional branches in which the graduate was found proficient. Actual Teachers of Common Schools, in good standing, who shall produce satisfactory evidence of having taught in Common [Schools,] during three full consecutive annual terms of the Districts in which they were employed, may also be examined at the same time and in the same manner with the regular students of their proper Normal School, and if found equally qualified, shall receive Certificates of Scholarship of the same kind; and all the Certificates granted under this section shall be received as evidence of Scholarship to the extent set forth on the face of them, without further examination, in every part of the State; and whenever the holder of any Certificate under this section shall, by study and practice, have prepared for examination in any branches of study additional to those in such Certificate, he or she may attend the Annual Examination of the Normal School of the District, and if found duly qualified, shall receive a new Certificate, setting forth all the branches in which, up to that time, he or she may have been found proficient; and thenceforth such enlarged Certificate shall also be evidence of Scholarship to the extent of it, in every part of the State, without further examination.

SEC. X. That no Certificate of competence in the Practice of Teaching shall be issued to the regular graduate of any of said Normal Schools till after the expiration of two years from the date of graduation, and of two full annual terms of actual teaching in the District or Districts in which such graduate taught, nor to any Teacher who shall hold a full Certificate of Scholarship without having been a regular student and graduate, unless upon full proof of three years' actual teaching in a Common School or Schools, nor in either case without the production of a Certificate of good moral conduct and satisfactory discharge of the requisite duration of professional duty from the Board or Boards of Directors in whose employment the applicant shall have taught, countersigned by the County Superintendent of the proper county or counties; on the production of which proof, and not otherwise, a full Certificate of competence in the Practice of Teaching shall be added to the Certificate of Scholarship, and of theoretical knowledge of the science of teaching already possessed, to be received as full evidence of practical qualification to teach in any part of the State without further examination: *Provided however*, That Practical Teachers who shall, upon due examination, receive a Certificate of Scholarship, may at the same time receive a Certificate in the Practice of Teaching, upon producing the required evidence of three years' previous Experience in the Art of Teaching, and of good moral conduct.

SEC. XI. That no Temporary or Provisional Certificate nor Certificate of any less degree of Scholarship than that required by the ninth section of this act shall be issued by said Board of Principals nor by the Faculty of any of said Schools; but the Principal of each of said Schools may certify in writing to the length of time which Teachers may have attended under the eleventh article of the sixth section of this act, and the manner of their deportment while in attendance.

SEC. XII. That the students who shall graduate on district account in any of said Normal Schools shall be liable to devote the next three years after the graduation to the exercise of their profession as Teachers in the Common Schools of the District which defrayed the expense of their professional instruction, if so required by the respective Boards of Directors of such Districts, and at the medium salary or compensation paid in such Districts; and if not so required by their proper District, they shall devote said three years to the employment of teaching in the Common Schools of some other District or Districts at such salary as may be given therein; and each of said students before admission to the proper Normal School shall subscribe a written declaration of his or her intention to comply with the provisions of this section, which shall be deposited with the Secretary of the Board of Directors of the proper Common School District.

SEC. XIII. That it shall be the duty of the Superintendent of Common Schools to prescribe all Forms and to give all instructions required for carrying this act into full effect on all points not herein set forth in detail.

OSWEGO NORMAL & TRAINING SCHOOL.

STATE NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL

OSWEGO, NEW YORK.

The Normal and Training School grew out of the necessities of the Oswego Schools. From the time of their organization in the summer of [illegible] regular Saturday Institutes were held, which all teachers were required to attend for the purpose of receiving instruction in methods of teaching the various branches, and giving unity and efficiency to the organization, discipline, and teaching in the several departments of the schools.

These weekly meetings served their purpose very well, but as new teachers were continually coming in who required careful training in methods, it was found impracticable to keep all properly qualified for their work under this arrangement. It seemed very desirable that this special preparation should be completed before the teachers were employed in the schools.

This necessity was more strongly felt when, in the Fall of 1859, the present methods of "Object Teaching" were introduced into all the lower grades. This made it absolutely indispensable that all should have special and careful training in the new methods.

During the first year the Superintendent endeavored to meet the primary teachers every Saturday for the purpose of imparting the necessary instruction, and giving illustrations of the new methods with classes of children. As this process required to be continually repeated, and at best it could be but imperfectly done, the Board resolved to establish a school for the practical training of teachers. To carry out this design more effectively, and especially in view of the new methods introduced, the Board resolved to secure the services of a teacher from one of the best Training Schools of Great Britain, where these methods were practiced. They accordingly entered into negotiations with Miss [illegible] M. Jones, a woman eminently qualified for her work; and who had been for fifteen years exclusively engaged in training primary teachers in the Home and Colonial Training Institution of London. Her engagement with the Board was but for one year. At their urgent request she was persuaded to remain three months longer.

Aside from the regular members of the Training Class, the teachers in the primary departments of all the public schools received a full course of instruction under Miss Jones. No pupils were admitted into the class

who had not previously completed a thorough academic course equivalent to that pursued in the Oswego High School.

A number of active, intelligent teachers from abroad joined the class. These ladies are now occupying important positions in different sections of the country, several of them in Training Schools which have since been established.

The school soon gained an enviable reputation not only for its methods of *teaching*, but for its methods of *training*. As the number of foreign pupils rapidly increased, and as there was evident demand for increased facilities for the professional education of teachers in the State, in the winter of 1862-3 the Legislature made an appropriation of $3,000 annually for two years, conditional on the attendance of fifty pupils, and the privilege of sending to the school two pupils from each Senatorial District free of charge for tuition.

In the spring of 1865 this appropriation was increased to $6,000, without imposing any conditions as to attendance, except that each Assembly District should be entitled to send one pupil to the school, but requiring the Board of Education or citizens of Oswego to provide suitable buildings and grounds for the accommodation of the school.

These conditions have been complied with in the purchase and enlargement of a building located in the most delightful part of the city, on high and commanding grounds, overlooking the entire town, the lake and the surrounding country. The frontispiece gives a view of this building in perspective. Its entire length in front is 153 feet and in depth 180 feet. The center or main part is built of a beautiful gray limestone found on the shores of Lake Ontario. The wings are of wood. It is designed to accommodate 800 pupils in the Normal Department, and 600 children in the Model and Practicing Schools.

Hitherto the course of instruction in the school has been confined to *methods* of teaching, and particularly to methods of primary instruction.

The class is divided into two sections. One section receives instruction in methods in the morning while the other is teaching in the Practicing School. In the afternoon the divisions alternate, the section that received instruction in the morning practice, and vice versa. In the instruction the teacher illustrates every point by a lesson with the children. The pupil-teachers are then called upon in turn to prepare a written sketch of a similar lesson, to be presented to the teacher on the succeeding day, when some member of the class is called upon to work out her sketch with the children, under the criticism of the class and teacher.

At the end of each month these divisions interchange. The division that taught in the morning teach in the afternoon, and receive instruction in methods in the morning and vice versa. By this arrangement each teacher instructs a class in a given grade one month in the morning session, and one month in the afternoon, and then changes grades. This affords each pupil-teacher an opportunity of teaching all the subjects of each grade for one month.

On changing from one grade to another, the pupils observe the teaching of the critics for two days, and for one day the teacher whom they are to succeed in their practice. The teaching is all done under the careful supervision and criticism of the most capable teachers, selected with special reference to their adaptation to their work. After the close of the public schools at 3½ o'clock, both divisions of the Training Class meet an hour and a half for instruction in methods.

A criticism lesson is given every Monday at 3½ o'clock. At this exercise some member of the class previously appointed gives a lesson with the children on some subject assigned. At the close of the exercise the members of the class are called on in turn to criticise the teaching both as to the character and arrangement of the matter and method.

At the close of the exercise, in a kind of summary, the Principal criticises both teacher and critics.

The course of training embraces one year, one-half of the time being devoted to instruction in method and the philosophy of education, and the other half to teaching under criticism.

The Oswego Board of Education are the Executive Committee, to act under the advice and general direction of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The Secretary of the Board, E. A. Sheldon, has acted as Principal of the school since the time Miss Jones returned to London.

The following extracts from a Circular of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction (Hon. Victor M. Rice) presents the conditions of admission, and the Course of Instruction for 1866:—

Each county is entitled to as many pupil-teachers in the Oswego Normal and Training School as it has representatives in the Assembly, and other qualified applicants are received until the accommodations are exhausted.

To gain admission to the school pupils must possess good health, good moral character, and average abilities. They must be able to pass a fair examination in Spelling, Reading, Geography, and Arithmetic, (as far as the roots;) also to analyze and parse simple sentences. Ladies must be at least sixteen and gentlemen eighteen years of age. Those who shall have passed the examination will receive a formal appointment from the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and be admitted to all the privileges of the school.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

Elementary Preparatory Course.

This course is limited to one term of twenty weeks, which is devoted chiefly to instruction in Spelling, Reading, Writing, Book-keeping, (single entry,) Linear and Object Drawing, Geography, (physical and political,) Arithmetic, (oral and written,) History. Grammar, Analysis of Words, to Exercises in Impromptu Composition, and to Weekly Essays.

It is desirable that all pupils, on entering the school, be thoroughly qualified in these common English branches. Those not found so qualified will be required to pass through this course under thorough instruction before entering upon the Training Course.

Elementary Training Course

This course is limited to one year of two terms, each twenty weeks; and includes instruction in methods of teaching the branches named in the Elementary

Preparatory Course, and of miscellaneous subjects calculated to cultivate the perceptive faculties. Special attention will be directed to objective teaching, and to the philosophical yet simple methods of primary instruction.

B CLASS.—Methods of teaching the subjects comprised in the Elementary Preparatory Course; also instruction in the Philosophy of Education, School Economy, Physiology, Zoölogy, Botany, and Mineralogy, and Impromptu Composition, (oral and written.) Criticism lessons and essays weekly.

A CLASS.—The time of this class will be devoted to observation in the Model Schools, and teaching in the Practicing Schools, under the supervision of competent critics. Two hours, each day, will be devoted to Impromptu Composition, and to methods of teaching Form, Size, Measure, Color, Weight, Sounds, Objects, Animals, Plants, and giving Moral Instruction. Criticism lessons and essays weekly.

Students having satisfactorily completed the preceding courses will receive a diploma, signed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Superintendent of the School, the Head Master, and the Officers of the Board of Education of the city of Oswego.

This diploma will serve as a certificate of qualification to teach common schools.

Advanced Preparatory Course.

Students to be admitted to this course must pass a satisfactory examination in the studies of the Elementary Preparatory Course; one much more critical than for admission to the Elementary Training Course.

As familiarity with any subject is essential to a consideration of the best methods of teaching it, no pupil will be admitted to the Advanced Training Class until properly prepared in all the subjects of this course. Those familiar with none of the branches herein named will require a full year and a half to complete the course; others, who have mastered a portion of them, may complete it in less time.

The students of this division may be arranged in three classes, according to their acquirements. Those conversant with some of the studies of each class may take up such studies as they need to pursue, in order to pass the required examination for the "Advanced Training Course."

SUBJECTS OF C CLASS.—Higher Arithmetic, Algebra, Grammatical Analysis, Rhetoric, English Literature, Book-keeping, (double entry,) Linear and Object Drawing, Botany, and Impromptu Composition. Rhetorical Exercises and Essays weekly.

SUBJECTS OF B CLASS.—Algebra continued, Geometry, History, Natural Philosophy, Perspective Drawing, Chemistry, and Impromptu Composition. Rhetorical Exercises and Essays weekly.

SUBJECTS OF A CLASS.—Astronomy, Algebra completed, Trigonometry, Surveying and Mensuration, Mental and Moral Philosophy, Geology and Mineralogy, and Impromptu Composition. Rhetorical Exercises and Essays weekly.

Advanced Training Course.

This course will occupy one term of twenty weeks, and will be devoted to instruction and practice in the best methods of teaching the branches named in the Advanced Preparatory Course.

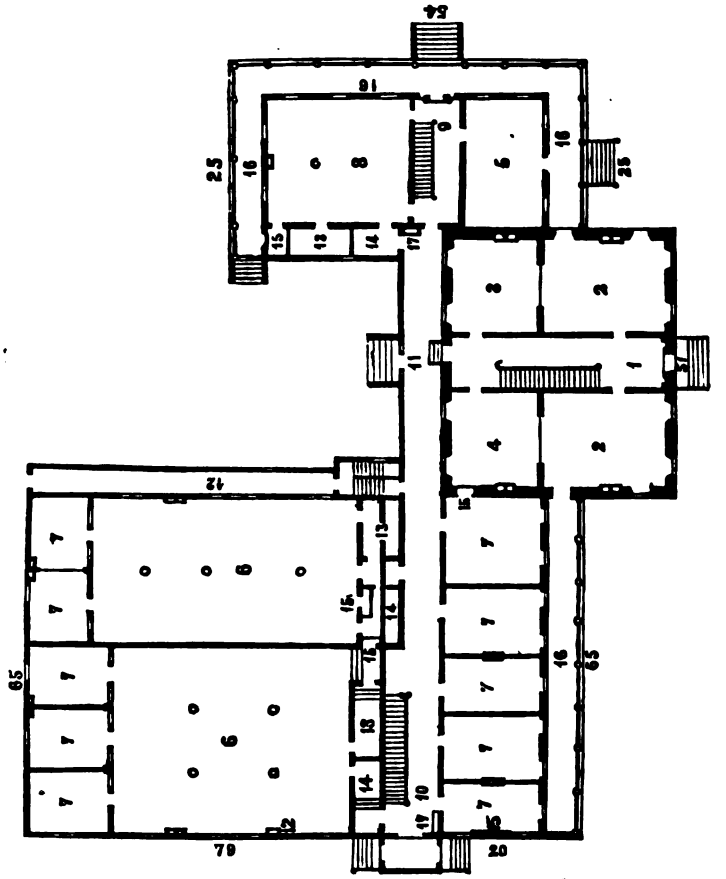
In this course special attention will be directed to the Philosophy of Education, School History, School Law, Science of Government, School Organization, and Discipline; to the Theory and Practice of Teaching and School Economy generally. There will be frequent Criticism Lessons and Compositions.

A course of lectures will be given on Zoölogy, Physiology, and Hygiene, to be accompanied by reading on the part of the class. A portion of the time will be devoted to observation and practice in teaching under criticism.

To those who satisfactorily complete the course a diploma will be given, signed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Superintendent of the School, the Head Master, and the Officers of the Local Board, certifying that the graduate therein named is "deemed qualified to teach the English branches usually pursued in the High Schools and Academies of the State."

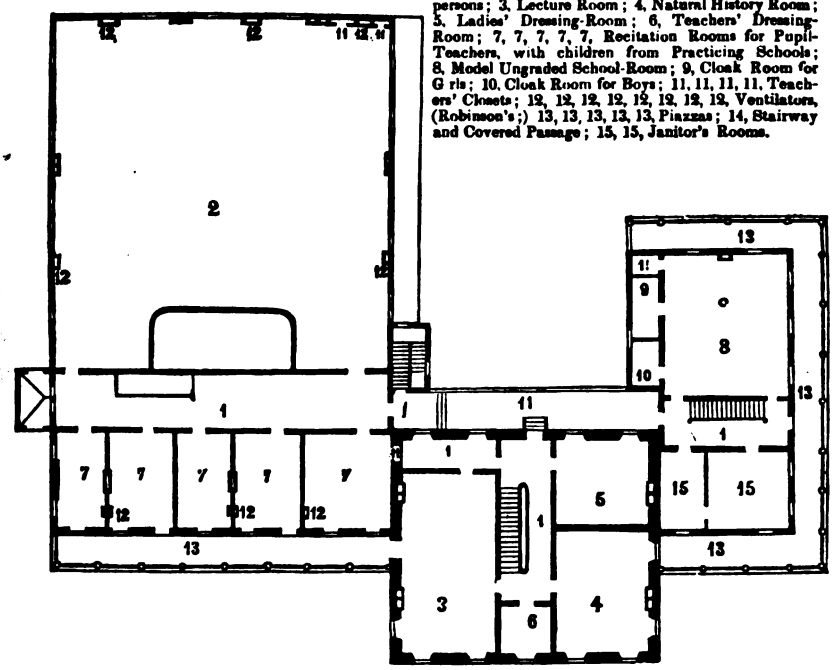
Plans and Descriptions of the State Normal and Training School at Oswego, New York.

The accommodation provided for the Normal and Training School at Oswego, New York, is a large and commodious building, with ample grounds, located in a pleasant section of the city, and commanding a fine view of the town, lake, and surrounding country. The entire front is 153 feet, and its depth 130 feet, with ample accommodation for 600 pupils in the Model and Practicing Schools, and 300 in the Normal Department.

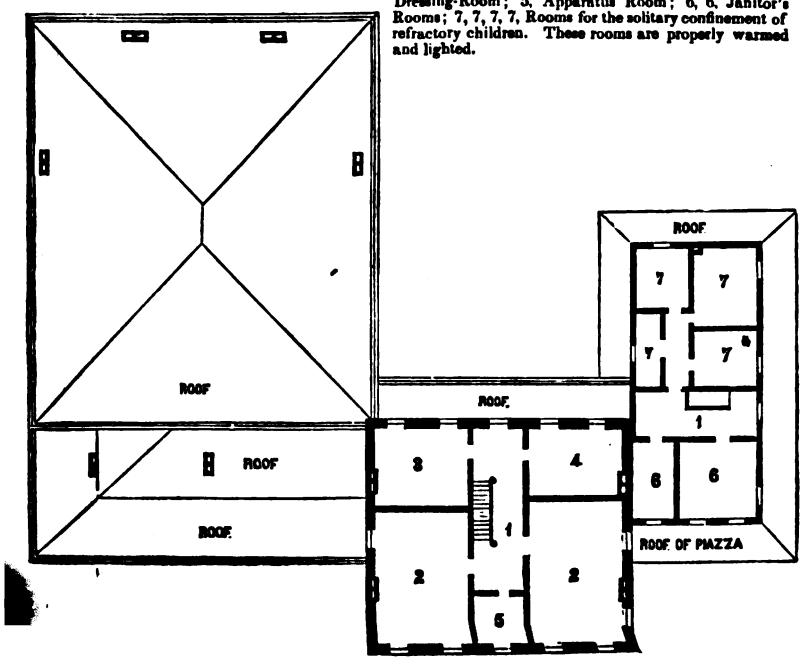


First Floor.—1, Hall and Main Entrance to Normal School; 2, 2, Recitation Rooms for Normal School; 3, Laboratory and Chemical Apparatus; 4, Philosophical Apparatus and Cabinet; (Between rooms 2 and 3, and 2 and 4, are sliding doors so that two rooms can be thrown into one when required;) 5, Office; 6, 6, Assembly Rooms for Practicing Schools; 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, Recitation Rooms for Pupil-Teachers; 8, Model Graded School-Room; 9, Girls' Hall and Main Entrance to Model and Practicing Schools; 10, Boys' Hall and Main Entrance to Model and Practicing Schools; 11, Entrance from Court-Yard; 12, Covered Passage Way to Water Closets; 13, 13, 13, Girls' Cloak Rooms; 14, 14, 14, Boys' Cloak Rooms; 15, 15, 15, 15, 15, Teachers' Closets; 16, 16, 16, 16, Piazzas; 17, 17, Sinks for soft water.

SECOND FLOOR.—1, 1, 1, 1, 1, Halls; 2, Assembly Room and Hall, capable of seating from 800 to 1,000 persons; 3, Lecture Room; 4, Natural History Room; 5, Ladies' Dressing-Room; 6, Teachers' Dressing-Room; 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, Recitation Rooms for Pupil-Teachers, with children from Practicing Schools; 8, Model Ungraded School-Room; 9, Cloak Room for G rls; 10, Cloak Room for Boys; 11, 11, 11, 11, Teachers' Closets; 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, Ventilators, (Robinson's;) 13, 13, 13, 13, 13, Piazzas; 14, Stairway and Covered Passage; 15, 15, Janitor's Rooms.



THIRD FLOOR.—1, 1, Halls; 2, 2, Recitation Rooms; 3, Library and Reading Room; 4, Gentlemen's Dressing-Room; 5, Apparatus Room; 6, 6, Janitor's Rooms; 7, 7, 7, 7, Rooms for the solitary confinement of refractory children. These rooms are properly warmed and lighted.



III. ADVICE ON STUDIES AND CONDUCT,

BY MEN EMINENT IN LETTERS AND AFFAIRS.

GEORGE BERTHOLD NIEBUHR.

GEORGE BERTHOLD NIEBUHR, the Philologist, Diplomatist, and Historian, was born in Copenhagen, August 27, 1776, but his early years were spent in South Ditmash, where his father, Carsten Niebuhr, the celebrated traveler in the East, held an appointment from the Prussian government, and by whom he was principally instructed until he joined the university at Kiel in 1773. In 1795 he went to Edinburgh and pursued his studies for two years, including his visits to different parts of England. His professional studies were jurisprudence and finance, and for several years he was secretary of the Minister of Finance (Count Bermslorff) at Copenhagen, and one of the directors of the Bank. In 1806 he entered the Prussian service, was appointed one of the counselors of public affairs under Prince Hardenberg, in 1808 was sent as embassador to Holland and again in 1812, and 1816 as minister plenipotentiary to Rome. This last appointment was given in furtherance of his historical studies, to which he had devoted himself with great zeal, having given his first course of lectures on Roman History in the University of Berlin in 1810, and published the first and second volumes of his History of Rome in 1811 and 1812. While at Rome he prosecuted his historical studies, examining ancient manuscripts, edited some unpublished manuscripts of Cicero and Livy, and made his house the resort of learned men and artists of all countries who congregate at Rome. In 1823 he retired to Bonn, and in the following years until his death, on the 2d of January, 1831, he continued to read lectures in the university on Roman History and Antiquities, Greek History, Ancient Geography and Statistics, and kindred subjects, and commenced rewriting his History of Rome, and a new edition of the Byzantine Historians. In his domestic and social relations, he was simple, affectionate, and influential. He loved to have students consult him in reference to their reading, and "I have found him," says Lieber in his Reminiscences, "repeatedly rolling on the ground with his children."

LETTER FROM BARTHOLD GEORGE NIEBUHR TO HIS NEPHEW, ON PHILOLOGICAL STUDIES.

[NIEBUHR, the historian, diplomatist, and philologist, addressed the following letter, while residing at Rome as Prussian Minister, to his nephew, then nineteen years of age. It is a precious manual of advice from a ripe scholar and an eminent statesman, not only on the intellectual processes of education, but on the true ideal of conduct—simplicity, energy, truthfulness—in every walk of life.]

When your dear mother wrote to me, that you showed a decided inclination for philological studies, I expressed my pleasure to her at the tidings; and begged her and your father not to cross this inclination by any plans they might form for your future life. I believe I said to her, that, as philology is the introduction to all other studies, he who pursues it in his school-years with eagerness, as if it were the main business of his life, prepares himself by so doing for whatever study he may choose at the university. And besides, philology is so dear to me, that there is no other calling I would rather wish for a young man for whom I have so great an affection as for you. No pursuit is more peaceful or cheering; none gives a better security for tranquillity of heart and of conscience, by the nature of its duties, and the manner of exercising them: and how often have I lamented with sorrow that I forsook it, and entered into a more bustling life, which perhaps will not allow me to attain to any lasting quiet, even when old age is coming on! The office of a schoolmaster especially is a thoroughly honorable one; and, notwithstanding all the evils which disturb its ideal beauty, truly for a noble heart one of the happiest ways of life. It was once the course I had chosen for myself; and it might have been better had I been allowed to follow it. I know very well, that, spoilt as I now am by the great sphere in which I have spent my active life, I should no longer be fitted for it; but for one whose welfare I have so truly at heart, I should wish that he might not be spoilt in the same manner, nor desire to quit the quietness and the secure narrow circle in which I, like you, passed my youth.

Your mother told me that you wanted to show me something of your writing, as a mark of your diligence, and in order that I might perceive what progress you have already made. I begged she would bid you do so, not only that I might give you and your friends a proof of the sincere interest I take in you; but also because in philology I have a tolerably clear knowledge of the end to be aimed at, and of the paths which lead to it, as well as of those which tempt us astray: so that I can encourage any one who has had the

good fortune to enter on one of the former, while I feel the fullest confidence in warning such as are in danger of losing their way, and can tell them whither they will get unless they turn back. I myself had to make my way through a thorny thicket, mostly without a guide; and, alas, at times in opposition to the cautions given me but too forbearingly by those who might have been my guides. Happily—I thank God for it—I never lost sight of the end, and found the road to it again; but I should have got much nearer that end, and with less trouble, had the road been pointed out to me.

I tell you with pleasure, and can do so with truth, that your composition is a creditable proof of your industry; and that I am very glad to see how much you have studied and learnt in the six years since I last saw you. I perceive you have read much, and with attention and a desire of knowledge. In the first place however, I must frankly beg you to examine your Latin, and to convince yourself that in this respect much is wanting. I will not lay a stress on certain grammatical blunders: on this point I agree entirely with my dear friend Spalding, whom such blunders in his scholars did not provoke, provided his pointing them out availed by degrees to get rid of them. A worse fault is, that you have more than once broken down in a sentence; that you employ words in an incorrect sense; that your style is turgid and without uniformity; that you use your metaphors illogically. You do not write simply enough to express a thought unpretendingly, when it stands clearly before your mind. That your style is not rich and polished is no ground for blame; for although there have been some, especially in former times, who by a peculiarly happy management of a peculiar talent have gained such a style at your age, yet in ordinary cases such perfection is quite unattainable. Copiousness and nicety of expression imply a maturity of intellect, which can only be the result of a progressive development. But what every one can and ought to do, is, not to aim at an appearance of more than he really understands; but to think and express himself simply and correctly. Here, therefore, take a useful rule. When you are writing a Latin essay, think what you mean to say with the utmost distinctness you are capable of, and put it into the plainest words. Study the structure of the sentences in great writers; and exercise yourself frequently in imitating some of them: translate passages so as to break up the sentences; and when you translate them back again, try to restore the sentences. In this exercise you will not need the superintendence of your teacher; do it, however, as a preparation for the practice of riper years. When you are writing, examine carefully whether

your language be of one color. It matters not to my mind, whether you attach yourself to that of Cicero and Livy, or to that of Tacitus and Quintilian: but one period you must choose: else the result is a motley style, which is as offensive to a sound philologer, as if one were to mix up German of 1650 and of 1800.

You were very right not to send the two projected essays which you mention; because you can not possibly say any thing sound on such questions. Dissertations on particular points can not be written, until we have a distinct view of the whole region wherein they are comprised, until we can feel at home there, and moreover have a sufficient acquaintance with all their bearings upon other provinces of knowledge. It is quite another matter, that we must advance from the special to the general, in order to gain a true understanding of a complex whole. And here we need not follow any systematic order, but may give way to our accidental inclinations, provided we proceed cautiously, and do not overlook the gaps which remain between the several parts.

You have undertaken to write about the Roman colonies, and their influence on the state. Now it is quite impossible that you can have so much as a half-correct conception of the Roman colonies; and to write about their influence on the state, you should not only accurately understand the constitution of Rome and its history, but should be acquainted with the principles and history of politics; all of which as yet is impossible. When I say this, I will add, that none of us, who are entitled to the name of philologers, could have treated this subject at your age; not even Grotius, or Scaliger, or Salmasius, who were excellent grammarians so much earlier than any of us. Still less suited to you is your second subject. You must know enough of antiquity to be aware that the philosophy of young men, down to a much riper age than yours, consisted in silent listening, in endeavoring to understand and to learn. You can not even have an acquaintance with the facts, much less carry on general reflections,—to let pass the word *philosophical*,—on questions of minute detail, mostly problematical. To learn, my dear friend, to learn conscientiously,—to go on sifting and increasing our knowledge,—this is our speculative calling through life: and it is so most especially in youth, which has the happiness that it may give itself up without hinderance to the charms of the new intellectual world opened to it by books. He who writes a dissertation,—let him say what he will,—pretends to teach: and one can not teach without some degree of wisdom; which is the amends that, if we strive after it, God will give us for the departing bliss of youth.

What I wish above all things to impress on you, my young friend, is, that you should purify your mind to entertain a sincere reverence for every thing excellent. This is the best dower of a youthful spirit, its surest guide.

I must now say something more to you about your style of writing. It is too verbose; and you often use false metaphors. Do not suppose that I am unreasonable enough to require a finished style. I expect not such from you, nor from any one at your age; but I would warn you against a false mannerism. All writing should merely be the expression of thought and speech. A man should either write just as he actually delivers a continuous discourse, expressing his genuine thoughts accurately and fully; or, as he would speak, if placed in circumstances, in which in real life he is not placed, where he might be called upon to do so. Every thing should spring from thought; and the thoughts should fashion the structure of the words. To be able to do this, we must study language, must enrich our memory with an abundant supply of words and phrases, whether in our mother tongue, or in foreign tongues, living or dead, must learn to define words precisely, and to determine the idiomatic meaning of phrases, and their limits. The written exercises of a boy or lad should have no other object than to develop his power of thinking, and to enrich and purify his language. If we are not content with our thoughts,—if we twist and turn about under a feeling of our emptiness, writing becomes terribly up-hill work, and we have hardly courage to persevere in it. This was my case at your age, and long after. There was no one who would enter into my distress and assist me; which in my youth would have been easy.

Above all things, however, in every branch of literature and science, must we preserve our truth so pure, as utterly to shun all false show,—so as never to assert any thing, however slight, for certain, of which we are not thoroughly convinced,—so as to take the utmost pains, when we are expressing a conjecture, to make the degree of our belief apparent. If we do not, where is it possible, ourselves point out defects which we perceive, and which others are not likely to discover,—if, when we lay down our pen, we can not say, in the presence of God, *I have written nothing knowingly, which, after a severe examination, I do not believe to be true; in nothing have I deceived my reader, either with regard to myself or others; nor have I set my most odious adversary in any other light than I would answer for at my last hour*,—if we can not do this, learning and literature make us unprincipled and depraved.

Here I am conscious that I demand nothing from others, of which a higher spirit, reading my soul, could reproach me with ever having done the reverse. This scrupulousness, combined with my conception of what a philologer can and ought to be, if he comes before the world, and with my reverence for great scholars, made me so reluctant, long after I had attained to manhood, to appear with any work. Though often urged to do so, not without reproaches, by my friends, I felt that my hour was not yet come; which, had my life taken another course, might have come several years earlier.

From a young man, were it merely as an exercise of honesty, I demand the most scrupulous truth in literature, as in all other things, absolutely and without exception; so that it may become an integral part of his nature; or rather, that the truth, which God planted in his nature, may abide there. By it alone can we fight our way through the world. The hour when my Marcus should say an untruth, or give himself the show of a merit which he had not, would make me very unhappy.

I come now to another part of my task of giving you advice. I wish you were not so fond of satires, even of Horace's. Turn to those works which elevate the heart, in which you see great men and great events, and live in a higher world: turn away from those which represent the mean and contemptible side of ordinary relations and degenerate ages. They are not fitted for the young; and the ancients would not have let them fall into your hands. Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Pindar,—these are the poets for youth, the poets with whom the great men of antiquity nourished themselves; and as long as literature shall give light to the world, they will ennoble the youthful souls, that are filled with them, for life. Horace's Odes, as copies of Greek models, are also good reading for the young; and I regret that it is become the practice to depreciate them, which only a few masters are entitled to do, or can do without arrogance. In his Epistles, Horace is original, and more genial; but he who reads them intelligently, reads them with sorrow; they can not do good to any one. We see a man of noble disposition, but who, from inclination and reflection, tries to adapt himself to an evil age, and who has given himself up to a vile philosophy, which does not prevent his continuing noble, but lowers all his views. His morality rests on the principle of suitableness, decorum, reasonableness: he declares expediency (to take the most favorable expression) to be the source of the idea of right (Sat. I. iii. 98.) Baseness discomposes him, and excites him, not to anger, but to a slight chastisement. That admiration for virtue, which constrains

us to scourge vice, and which we see not only in Tacitus, but also in Juvenal,—in the latter disgustingly,—is not found in Horace. Juvenal, however, you must not read yet, with the exception of a few pieces: nor is this any loss; for even if you might be allowed to read him, it would not be wholesome at your age, to dwell on the contemplation of vice, instead of enriching your mind with great thoughts.

To these poets, and among prose writers to Herodotus, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Plutarch, Cicero, Livy, Cæsar, Sallust, Tacitus, I earnestly entreat you to turn, and to keep exclusively to them. Do not read them to make esthetical remarks on them, but to read yourself into them, and to fill your soul with their thoughts, that you may gain by their reading, as you would gain by listening reverently to the discourses of great men. This is the philology which does one's soul good: learned investigations, when one has attained to the capacity of carrying them on, still are only of secondary value. We must be accurately acquainted with grammar, according to the ancient, wide acceptation of that term: we must acquire all branches of archæology, so far as lies in our power. But even though we were to make the most brilliant emendations, and could explain the most difficult passages off hand, this is nothing but mere trickery, unless we imbibe the wisdom and the magnanimity of the great ancients, feel like them, and think like them.

For the study of language, I recommend you, above all, Demosthenes and Cicero. Take the speech of the former *for the Crown*, that of the latter *pro Cluentio*, and read them with all the attention you are master of. Then go through them, giving account to yourself of every word, of every phrase. Draw up an argument: try to get a clear view of all the historical circumstances, and to arrange them in order. This will give you an endless work; and hence you will learn how little you can, and consequently do yet know. Then go to your teacher,—not to surprise him with some unexpectedly difficult questions (for in the speech for Cluentius there are difficulties with regard to the facts, which, even after the longest familiarity with it, can only be solved by conjectures, such as will not occur to the best scholar at the moment) but that he may have the kindness to consider the passages, and to consult the commentators for you, where your powers and means are at fault. Construct a sketch of the procedure in the accusation against Cluentius. Make a list of the expressions, especially epithets and the nouns they are applied to, and mark the key of the metaphors. Translate passages; and a few weeks after, turn your translation back into the original tongue.

Along with this grammatical exercise, read those great writers, one after the other, with more freedom. But after finishing a book, or a section, recall what you have been reading in your memory, and note down the substance as briefly as you can. Note also the phrases and expressions which recur to you the most forcibly; and you should always write down every new word you meet with immediately, and read over the list in the evening.

Leave the commentators and emendators for the present unread. The time will come, when you may study them to advantage. A painter must first learn to draw, before he begins to use colors: and he must know how to handle the ordinary colors, before he decides for or against the use of ultramarines. Of writing I have already spoken to you. Keep clear of miscellaneous reading, even of the ancient authors: among them too there are many bad ones. Æolus only let the one wind blow, which was to bear Ulysses to his goal: the others he tied up: when let loose, and crossing each other, they occasioned him endless wanderings.

Study history in two ways, according to persons, and according to states. Often make synchronistical surveys.

The advice which I give you, I would give to any one in your place. The blame I should have to give to very many. Do not fancy that I don't know this, or that I do not willingly take account of your industry according to its deserts.

The study which I require of you will make no show, will advance slowly: and it will perhaps discourage you to find that many years of studentship are still before you. But, my friend, true learning and true gain are the real blessings of speculative life; and our lifetime is not so short. Still, however long it may be, we shall always have more to learn: God be praised that it is so!

And now, may God bless your labors, and give you a right mind, that you may carry them on to your own welfare and happiness, to the joy of your parents and of us all, who have your virtue and respectability at heart.

"A bad handwriting ought never to be forgiven. Sending a badly written letter to a fellow-creature is as impudent an act as I know of. Can there be any thing more unpleasant, than to open a letter which at once shows that it will require long deciphering? Besides, the effect of the letter is gone, if we must spell it. Many applications for aid, positions, and coöperation are prejudiced and even thrown aside, merely because they are written so badly."

"Writing seems to me just like dressing; we ought to dress well and neat; but as we may dress too well, so may a pedantically fine hand show that the writer has thought more of the letters than the sense."—*Conversation—in Lieber's Reminiscences of Niebuhr.*

ROBERT SOUTHEY—A FIRESIDE LESSON ON CONDUCT AND WISDOM.

[The readers of that most remarkable production of Robert Southey—"The Doctor, &c."—will recall in the following conversation the principal characters which figure in the volume, so full of rare learning, quaint humor, and practical wisdom, viz., Daniel, the veritable Doctor Daniel Dove, and Dinah, his wife, and Daniel, their only son, born to them after fifteen years of wedlock, a healthy, apt, and docile child, who was growing up under the wholesome teaching of outward nature, of a quiet, pious, industrious, and reading household, and of the more formal but simple teaching of a country schoolmaster by the name of William Guy, and of a loving but half-witted uncle, William Dove:—

"Father," said the boy Daniel one day, after listening to a conversation upon this subject, [of Alchemy,] "I should like to learn to make gold."

"And what wouldst thou do, Daniel, if thou couldst make it?" was the reply.

"Why, I would build a great house, and fill it with books, and have as much money as the king, and be as great a man as the squire."

"Mayhap, Daniel, in that case thou wouldst care for books as little as the squire, and have as little time for them as the king. Learning is better than house or land. As for money, enough is enough; no man can enjoy more; and the less he can be contented with, the wiser and better he is likely to be. What, Daniel, does our good poet tell us in the great verse book?

Nature's with little pleased; enough's a feast;
A sober life but a small charge requires;
But man, the author of his own unrest,
The more he hath, the more he still desires.

No, boy, thou canst never be as rich as the king, nor as great as the squire; but thou mayst be a philosopher, and that is being as happy as either."

"A great deal happier," said Guy. "The squire is as far from being the happiest man in the neighborhood as he is from being the wisest or the best. And the king, God bless him! has care enough upon his head to bring on early gray hairs."

Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

"But what does a philosopher do?" rejoined the boy. "The squire hunts, and shoots, and smokes, and drinks punch, and goes to justice meetings. And the king goes to fight for us against the French, and governs the parliament, and makes laws. But I can not tell what a philosopher's business is. Do they do any thing else besides making almanacs and gold?"

"Yes," said William, "they read the stars."

"And what do they read there?"

"What neither thou nor I can understand, Daniel," replied the father, "however nearly it may concern us."

That grave reply produced a short pause. It was broken by the boy, who said, returning to the subject, "I have been thinking, father, that it is not a good thing to be a philosopher."

"And what, my son, has led thee to that thought?"

"What I have read at the end of the dictionary, father. There was one philosopher that was pounded in a mortar."

"That, Daniel," said the father, "could neither have been the philosopher's fault nor his choice."

"But it was because he was a philosopher, my lad," said Guy, "that he bore it so bravely, and said, 'Beat on; you can only bruise the shell of Anaxarchus!' If he had not been a philosopher they might have pounded him just the same, but they would never have put him in the dictionary. Epictetus in like manner bore the torments which his wicked master inflicted upon him without a groan, only saying, 'Take care, or you will break my leg;' and when the leg was broken, he looked the wretch in the face, and said, 'I told you you would break it.'"

"But," said the youngster, "there was one philosopher who chose to live in a tub; and another, who, that he might never again see any thing to withdraw his mind from meditation, put out his eyes by looking upon a bright brass basin, such as I cured my warts in."

"He might have been a wise man," said William Dove, "but not wondrous wise; for if he had, he would not have used the basin to put his eyes out. He would have jumped into a quickset hedge, and scratched them out, like the man of our town; because, when he saw his eyes were out, he might then have jumped into another hedge and scratched them in again. The man of our town was the greatest philosopher of the two."

"And there was one," continued the boy, "who had better have blinded himself at once, for he did nothing else but cry at every thing he saw. Was not this being very foolish?"

"I am sure," says William, "it was not being merry and wise."

"There was another who said that hunger was his daily food."

"He must have kept such a table as Duke Humphrey," quoth William; "I should not have liked to dine with him."

"Then there was Crates," said the persevering boy; "he had a good estate, and sold it, and threw the money into the sea, saying, 'Away, ye paltry cares! I will drown you, that ye may not drown me.'"

"I should like to know," said William, "what the overseer said to that chap, when he applied to the parish for support."

"They sent him off to bedlam, I suppose," said the mother;" "it was the fit place for him, poor creature."

"And when Aristippus set out upon a journey, he bade his servants throw away all their money, that they might travel the better. Why, they must have begged their way, and it can not be right to beg if people are not brought to it by misfortune. And there were some who thought there was no God. I am sure they were fools, for the Bible says so."

"Well, Daniel," said Guy, "thou hast studied the end of the dictionary to some purpose!"

"And the Bible, too, Master Guy!" said Dinah, her countenance brightening with joy at her son's concluding remark.

"It's the best part of the book," said the boy, replying to the schoolmaster; "there are more entertaining and surprising things there than I ever read in any other place, except in my father's book about Pantagruel."

The elder Daniel had listened to this dialogue in his usual quiet way, smiling sometimes at his brother William's observations. He now stroked his forehead, and looking mildly but seriously at the boy, addressed him thus:—

"My son, many things appear strange or silly in themselves if they are presented to us simply, without any notice when and where they were done, and upon what occasion. The things which the old philosophers said and did, would appear, I dare say, as wise to us as they did to the people of their own times, if we knew why and in what circumstances they were done and said.

Daniel, there are two sorts of men in all ranks and ways of life, the wise and the foolish: and there are a great many degrees between them. That some foolish people have called themselves philosophers, and some wicked ones, and some who were out of their wits, is just as certain as that persons of all these descriptions are to be found among all conditions of men.

Philosophy, Daniel, is of two kinds: that which relates to conduct, and that which relates to knowledge. The first teaches us to value all things at their real worth, to be contented with little, modest in prosperity, patient in trouble, equal-minded at all times. It teaches us our duty to our neighbor and ourselves. It is that wisdom of which King Solomon speaks in our rhyme book. Reach me the volume." Then turning to the passage in his favorite Du Bartas, he read these lines:—

She's God's own mirror; she's a light whose glance
Springs from the lightning of his countenance.
She's mildest heaven's most sacred influence;
Never decays her beauties' excellence,
Aye like herself; and she doth always trace
Not only the same path but the same pace.
Without her honor, health, and wealth would prove
Three poisons to me. Wisdom from above
Is the only moderatrix, spring and guide,
Organ and honor, of all gifts beside.

"But let us look in the Bible: aye, this is the place:"—

For in her is an understanding spirit, holy, one only, manifold, subtile, lively, clear, undefiled, plain, not subject to hurt, loving the thing that is good, quick, which can not be letted, ready to do good;

Kind to man, steadfast, sure, free from care, having all power, overseeing all things, and going through all understanding, pure and most subtile spirits.

For wisdom is more moving than any motion: she passeth and goeth through all things by reason of her pureness.

For she is the breath of the power of God, and a pure influence, flowing from the glory of the Almighty; therefore can no defiled thing fall into her.

For she is the brightness of the everlasting light, the unspotted mirror of the power of God, and the image of his goodness.

And being but one she can do all things; and remaining in herself she maketh all things new: and in all ages entering into holy souls she maketh them friends of God and prophets.

For God loveth none but him that dwelleth with wisdom.

For she is more beautiful than the sun, and above all the order of stars: being compared with the light she is found before it.

For after this cometh night: but vice shall not prevail against wisdom.

He read this with a solemnity that gave weight to every word. Then closing the book, after a short pause, he proceeded in a lower tone:—

"The philosophers of whom you have read in the dictionary possessed this wisdom only in part, because they were heathens, and therefore could see no further than the light of mere reason could show the way. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom, and they had not that to begin with. So the thoughts which ought to have made them humble produced pride, and so far their wisdom proved but folly. The humblest Christian who learns his duty, and performs it

as well as he can, is wiser than they. He does nothing to be seen of men; and that was their motive for most of their actions.

Now for the philosophy which relates to knowledge. Knowledge is a brave thing. I am a plain, ignorant, untaught man, and know my ignorance. But it is a brave thing when we look around us in this wonderful world to understand something of what we see; to know something of the earth on which we move, the air which we breathe, and the elements whereof we are made; to comprehend the motions of the moon and stars, and measure the distances between them, and compute times and seasons; to observe the laws which sustain the universe by keeping all things in their courses; to search into the mysteries of nature, and discover the hidden virtue of plants and stones, and read the signs and tokens which are shown us, and make out the meaning of hidden things, and apply all this to the benefit of our fellow-creatures.

Wisdom and knowledge, Daniel, make the difference between man and man, and that between man and beast is hardly greater.

These things do not always go together. There may be wisdom without knowledge, and there may be knowledge without wisdom. A man without knowledge, if he walk humbly with his God, and live in charity with his neighbors, may be wise unto salvation. A man without wisdom may not find his knowledge avail him quite so well. But it is he who possesses both that is the true philosopher. The more he knows, the more he is desirous of knowing; and yet the further he advances in knowledge the better he understands how little he can attain, and the more deeply he feels that God alone can satisfy the infinite desires of an immortal soul. To understand this is the perfection of philosophy."

Then opening the Bible which lay before him, he read these verses:—

My son, if thou wilt receive my words,—
So that thou incline thine ear unto wisdom, and apply thine heart to understanding;
Yea, if thou criest after knowledge, and liftest up thy voice for understanding;
If thou seekest after her as silver, and searchest for her as for hid treasures;
Then shalt thou understand the fear of the Lord, and find the knowledge of God.
For the Lord giveth wisdom: out of his mouth cometh knowledge and understanding.
He layeth up sound wisdom for the righteous: he is a buckler to them that walk uprightly.
He keepeth the paths of judgment, and preserveth the way of his saints.
Then shalt thou understand righteousness, and judgment, and equity; yea, every good path.
When wisdom entereth into thine heart, and knowledge is pleasant unto thy soul;
Discretion shall preserve thee, understanding shall keep thee,
To deliver thee from the way of evil.

"Daniel, my son," after a pause he pursued, "thou art a diligent and good lad. God hath given thee a tender and dutiful heart; keep it so, and it will be a wise one, for thou hast the beginning of wisdom. I wish thee to pursue knowledge, because in pursuing it, happiness will be found by the way. If I have said any thing now which is above thy years, it will come to mind in after time, when I am gone, perhaps, but when thou mayst profit by it. God bless thee, my child!"

He stretched out his right hand at these words, and laid it gently upon the boy's head. What he said was not forgotten, and throughout life the son never thought of that blessing without feeling that it had taken effect.

IV. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRINTED PROCEEDINGS OF 1865.

We devote the following articles [V. to IX.] to the Proceedings of the National Teachers' Association for 1865, so far as they were not published in our number for December last. We give below the Contents of the pamphlet edition of the same, together with the Preface of the Publishing Committee.

CONTENTS.

Page.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE OF PUBLICATION,.....213

CONSTITUTION OF NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,.....218

Officers for 1864-65,.....216

Members Present at Annual Meeting in 1865,.....217

List of Life Members,.....218

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS OF SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING,.....219

APPENDIX.

A. Letters of Absent Members and Invited Guests,.....225

B. Remarks of Professor A. Crummell, of Liberia,.....226

C. List of Committee on Memorial to Congress,.....227

D. Officers for 1865-66,.....227

LECTURES AND PAPERS.

XVIII. EDUCATIONAL DUTIES OF THE HOUR. Introductory Discourse by the President, Prof. S. S. Greene, Brown University,.....229

XIX. OBJECT TEACHING.—Report of Special Committee appointed in 1864, on Object Teaching, particularly as pursued in the Training School at Oswego, N. Y.,.....245

XX. NORMALS CHOOLS.—Their Objects, and Claims to a legal Recognition in every State System of Public Instruction. By Richard Edwards, A. M., Principal of State Normal University, at Normal, Illinois,.....271

XXI. EDUCATION AS AN ELEMENT OF RECONSTRUCTION OF THE UNION. By J. P. Wickersham, A. M., Principal of the State Normal School, at Millersville, Pa., 283

XXII. NATIONAL EDUCATION BUREAU. By Andrew Jackson Rickoff, A. M., Principal of Commercial and Classical Academy for Boys, Cincinnati, Ohio,.....299

XXIII. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.—National and State. By Henry Barnard, LL. D., 311

PREFATORY NOTE.

The official record, or Secretary's Journal of the Proceedings of the Seventh Session, of the SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING of the National Teachers' Association, held at Harrisburg, Penn., on the 16th, 17th and 18th of August, 1864, and such of the Addresses, Lectures and Papers read during the session, as were received by the Committee of Publication up to this date, are printed in pamphlet form for distribution among the members who have paid to the Treasurer the annual fee of one dollar required by the Constitution.

In 1864 the Association directed the Committee of Publication to include with the proceedings of the annual session for the year, an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Teachers' Associations for the same period. As the Committee were not able to obtain the necessary returns in time for their publication, Dr. Barnard, Editor of the American Journal of Education, in furtherance of the objects of the Association and as a contribution to the History of Education already designed for publication in his Journal, undertook not only to prepare an account of the proceedings of every State Association which held an Annual Meeting in 1861, but also a condensed summary of the subjects discussed in all the principal Conventions which had ever been held, and the Associations which had been formed for the promotion of education in the United States, and the improvement of public schools in the several States. Inviting the co-operation of the officers of all existing Associations, and using the material which he has been collecting for thirty years past for a history of Education in the United States, Dr. Barnard intended, as was announced in the Programme, to have submitted a summary of his inquiries, with some suggestions as to a Central Educational Agency, to the meeting at Harrisburg. This he was prevented from doing by illness which kept him at home, and his engagements since have prevented his writing out the brief notes of names, dates, and suggestions, prepared to aid him in an oral exposition of the subject, for publication in the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting, as he proposed to do. In his present inability to prepare such a paper, he places at the disposal of the Committee a sheet containing his Plan of a Central Office and Agency, together with a Circular as to his proposed comprehensive survey of the Educational History of the country, with the Contents of the volume devoted to the proceedings of Conventions and Associations for the Advancement of Education in the United States and the Improvement of Public Schools in the several States. The project is of such immediate and immense importance to the future progress of Schools and Education in the whole country, and the volume now ready for publication is in such direct furtherance of the expressed wishes of the Association, that the Committee have directed this sheet to be bound up with the Proceedings and forwarded to the members.

S. S. GREENE, *Providence, R. I.*
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, *Albany, New York.*
Z. RICHARDS, *Washington, D. C.*

December 27, 1865.

V. THE EDUCATIONAL DUTIES OF THE HOUR.

BY SAMUEL S. GREENE, PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Introductory Discourse before the National Teachers' Association at Harrisburg, Penn., in August, 1865.

ANOTHER year has passed away and with it a terrible war. The year marks an era in our history, Never before, in the annals of any nation, was the heart of the whole loyal people made to thrill with joy so enthusiastic, or, in quick succession, to throb with anguish so intense. The single month of April is without a parallel. The triumphant march of one of our most brilliant Generals through Georgia and the Carolinas had cut off the retreat of the rebel forces, while the General-in-Chief guarded their stronghold at Richmond. At length the time for final action had come. Victory after victory crowned every movement, till the main army of the Rebellion was ours. The history of a whole year seemed crowded into a single day. No hour of the day;—no day of the week was too sacred to restrain the general joy. The glaring bonfires, and the roaring cannon at the midnight hour told a jubilant people that a nefarious rebellion was forever crushed. Scarcely had the sound of the booming gun, and the pealing bell ceased along the hills and valleys of the loyal North, when,—too shocking for belief,—a dastard hand had deprived a grateful people of their cherished chief magistrate. No language can express the undisguised sorrow of the whole nation. Stout hearts were broken. Men, women, and children wept. Before the sun of that memorable 15th had gone down, the streets, the public buildings, and many of the private dwellings of our principal cities were in mourning. All had lost a friend. That day the name of Abraham Lincoln was made immortal.

Such were the closing days of a war as cruel, as it was unprovoked, as fatal to its instigators and their ambitious schemes, as it will prove beneficial to the parties and interests which they designed to crush. God be praised for so glorious a triumph of the right!

As we look back upon the last four years, what changes we have experienced! At the beginning of the struggle, labor, in the arts of peace was never better rewarded. The hum of industry was heard in all parts of the land. The artisan, the farmer, the man-

ufacturer, the mechanic, the professional man, the student, the instructor,—all were engaged in successful labor—their several departments delicately and nicely adjusted to each other, and to the general want, by the inevitable law of supply and demand. Suddenly these several departments of labor are thrown into disorder and confusion. The farmer, the mechanic, the student, the professor, the lawyer, the physician, the merchant, the manufacturer, become the soldier. The implements of industry are exchanged for the sword. In less than four years, more than one million five hundred thousand men from the North, and portions of the South, enter the service of the government. Add to this nearly every able-bodied man of the South—and it is easy to see what the industrial interests of the country must suffer. Besides this, the forms of labor must change. Our workshops must become manufactories of arms. Our artisans must build ships of war. Our merchants, and tradesmen must furnish supplies to the armies. Our young men are suddenly called upon to exchange employments. We see a whole continent, nay, the whole civilized world adjusting itself to a new order of things. Our commerce is suddenly swept from the ocean. Our spindles, whose hum had been the music of whole sections of our country, had either become mute, or changed their tune to come into harmony with the new condition of the country. Our institutions, industrial, moral, educational, civil and religious, have passed through an unprecedented ordeal. But a new order of things has come. It was the privilege of our fathers to witness the birth of our country. It is ours to witness its regeneration. Theirs was a distinguished honor,—ours a greater. They believed that there was "a divinity that shaped our ends," we can more than confirm that belief. Blind, blind indeed, is that man that can not discern the hand of the Almighty in this great upheaval of our social fabric.

In this our first gathering after the war, it is most fitting that we should inquire, How have the interests of education been affected by our national struggle?

What improvements have these fiery trials suggested?

What plans for the future, what new fields of labor do they unfold to us?

With what spirit should we enter upon the work before us?

How have the interests of education been affected by our national struggle?

It can not be said that they have been left untouched. Our teachers have been among the most loyal of our citizens. They

have literally hastened to the defense of their country's flag. Thousands of our young men, who could at any time during the war, have commanded the respect and deference of their officers by their superior talent and learning, have cheerfully yielded obedience to inferior men, and have borne the burden and shared the dangers of the private soldier, simply from their love of country. All honor to those noble young men! The country owes them much. They fought well. They knew for what they fought. Many will never return. They have died for their country—some on the battle-field, some in the hospital, and some in the accursed prison-pens of the South. Others have returned to their homes, some maimed for life, some, with constitutions crushed beyond recovery, and some, a good number let us hope, with health and vigor to resume their former calling.

Nor has our profession been represented in the capacity of the private merely. Some of the most successful officers were teachers in one form or other. And not a few have sealed their patriotism with their lives. Ohio mourns an Andrews; Indiana, a Fletcher; Rhode Island, a Pearce; and the world a Mitchel. Our Academies and Colleges, in the true spirit of our fathers, have most patriotically stood forth in defense of the government. They have yielded up their young men. They have sent forth their professors, and with unflinching fidelity, they have lent their full moral force to the cause of freedom and good government. And yet have they closed their doors? Seldom, if ever. All through the loyal States, our principal institutions of learning have prospered to a most wonderful degree. How has it been with the States in rebellion? Scarcely an Institution of learning survived! Who has heard of the suspension of a Public School at the North on account of the war? Our teachers have gone to the war,—but new ones have been ready to take their places. The four past years have been years of progress. Never before in all the history of this Association was there such a gathering as that at Chicago in 1863. Sixteen hundred to two thousand teachers assembled in one city to take counsel of each other, and give mutual support and encouragement! Let us look at the state of the country as it was before the war. In all the free States the Public School System prevailed, and in most was administered with great efficiency, giving a good education, alike to the children of the poor and the rich. Its blessings were diffused among the people. The children of all classes sat together in the same school, were competitors for the same honors, and were taught to value personal worth and intrinsic merit wherever developed,

rather than the accidents of birth and external circumstance. What they learned to value in childhood, they retained as they grew up together. Hence, a community where moral and intellectual worth, in no small degree, formed the standard of judgment, as to character and position.

How was it in the states where the institution of slavery prevailed? There was no Common School System. Exceptions there were in some of the cities,—but as a general fact, the statement is correct. The children of a large portion of the population were, by law, prohibited the advantages of an education; and a large portion of the free population were virtually shut out from the means of early culture. These two sections of the country, from the necessities of the case, must be parted from each other, by different tastes, different views of life, different aspirations, different judgments as to right and duty as to the true functions of government. Sectional and selfish jealousies are engendered. Designing men inflame and cherish them. A geographical distinction inevitably ensues. Jealousies give place to animosities; animosities to bitter hate, and bitter hate results in war. Thus has our land been deluged in blood. Sagacious politicians at the South saw the tendencies, and attributed the evil to the quality of Northern education. Without stopping to defend the character of our educational processes at the North, let it be observed that the root of the difficulty lay not in this direction, but in the fact of a diffused and universal education at the North, and a very limited education at the South. No two sections of country, though under the same government, can dwell together in peace and harmony, where the advantages for education are widely dissimilar. This proposition, the past history of our country has abundantly proved. And now that the war is over, it becomes us gravely to consider the grounds for hope in the future. Shall the North relinquish its system of universal education? Or shall the people of the South, of all classes, grades, and complexions be educated? Nothing short of this will give unity to the whole people. We may evade, compromise, and put off the evils which will evidently spring from the present diversity of educational advantages, but as surely as the Sun shall rise and set, they will spring up at some future day, to wither and destroy as they have done in the days just past. Education is the chief unifying process on which we can rely for a permanent peace. Let our statesmen duly consider this point in the work of reconstruction.

It becomes us as educators, while we re-examine the quality of the instruction which we are giving, to take courage from the tests of the late trying ordeal.

I believe that every loyal educator who has looked thoughtfully upon the developments of the war has felt an inward satisfaction at the general temper and spirit which has been shown by the educated masses of the North. As a whole they have fought, not because they were moved by vindictive passion, or sectional hatred,—not because they could make use of the hour of conflict, or of midnight patrol to gratify an inward personal hate, but because a cherished government was in danger, and was assailed by the foul hand of treason.

It has been gratifying to see that the diffusion of knowledge by our educational systems with all their acknowledged defects, has raised our common soldiers to a plane where they could appreciate a power superior to mere brute force. They have patiently borne the taunt "one against five" believing that the time would come when it would appear that "knowledge is power,"—that one well educated man would sway more influence than five hundred, bound in the fetters of ignorance. In the treatment of prisoners, in the treatment of those who have expressed opinions adverse to the prevailing power, in the free discussion of unwelcome topics, it is gratifying to see what control education has exerted over the government and the masses of the loyal States. Would that, in these respects, faithful history were not compelled to exhibit its darkest page in regard to the States lately in rebellion.

In respect to law where has the seeking for redress been made to follow the slow processes of the courts, and where has the individual or the mob defied all law? Not that the people of the Northern States are faultless, nor that, in the South, there have been no examples of adhesion to moral and political duty that have been truly sublime. But I am speaking of the general facts. Education,—it can not be denied—has made a difference. Shall we, then, in the light of this terrible war, for the sake of reconstruction and reunion, abandon our systems of universal education, which have made the North what it is, and for the sake of a general uniformity, adopt the partial systems of the South?

No! never! the blood of our fathers and brothers forbids it; the mangled but surviving forms of the defenders of this, the choicest inheritance from our fathers, forbid it! The God of Heaven, whose providential care over this great nation has been so marked, forbids it!

There is but one alternative, education must be diffused throughout the masses of the South. Black and White,—"poor white" and rich white all must be educated. Not to educate them is to

prepare for another civil war. To keep up perpetual jealousies, hatreds and abuses, as has been the case for the last thirty years, is only to cherish the cancer that has been gnawing at the vitals of our Republic. Shall it be done any longer? Gentlemen of this Association let us buckle on the armor, and meet the new exigency of our times. How many of us are ready to enter personally into this work? Who is not willing to aid, by his influence, in securing this as a permanent feature in the reconstruction of our government?

Before the war no Northern teacher dared to discuss the whole truth at the South. In morals there must be one code for the North, and another for the South. There could be no free discussion. In all our political contests, Southern men could come before a Northern audience—and could speak their sentiments freely—even vilify with impunity our manners and institutions. But the instant a Northern man attempted, at the South, to utter sentiments at all condemnatory of Southern institutions, or Southern life, he was forced to leave the country. Is it to be so now? Can we not as educators, go boldly into the Southern States, and teach the truth and the whole truth? If not, I pray God that martial law may prevail in every Southern State, till Northern men, or any other men, may discuss educational, political, social, moral and religious topics in any part of the South as freely as in Faneuil Hall. This right we must have.

As to physical power, it has been maintained, that we are inferior to the South,—that she nourishes more robust and athletic men than we. It may be so. The employments of many of our young men have confined them within doors, and as a natural consequence, they would become physically enfeebled. A few months in the camp and field, however gave such strength of muscle to most of them as made them inferior to none. Still many broke down under the trial and the failure in their health and endurance, may, unquestionably, be attributed in some measure to a defective physical training in childhood. To meet this want, many of our schools have introduced regular physical exercises as a part of the daily tasks. Others better prepared to judge than myself, will speak upon this point..

With respect to intellectual training, the events of the war have been suggestive. They have shown the difference between that which is merely theoretic—merely *bookish* and that which is truly *practical.* They have also shown the difference between practice sustained and guided by theory, and practice without theory.

In the early part of the war practical blunders were frequent;

the balance was against the Federal armies. The war was carried on, upon scientific principles, with a very unscientific practice. Nor is this surprising. Many of the officers educated at our National Military School had never been engaged in actual war. There was all the difference between *play* practice and *real* practice,—between the theoretic movements in military tactics, and the actual struggle for victory in the deadly encounter. Much was said in derision of military training. An actual schoolmaster in Kentucky, it was said, was gaining more fame than the best graduates of West Point. Practical good sense, personal daring, and a natural aptitude for command, did give, through the whole war, to some of the officers directly from civil life, a well-deserved fame. But how was it in the end? Almost all the officers who became eminent for distinguished services were men educated at West Point.

These facts are suggestive. We could not wish to have actual war, that our cadets might learn the theory of warfare, from the dreadful realities of the battle-field, but we can not restrain the thought of how much blood and treasure would have been spared if our officers had been at the beginning of the war what they were at the end. Now, this suggestion is none of mine. It is patent every where. Floods of tears have been shed because of the loss of dear ones, through the simple blunders of inexperience. Thousands of curses and imprecations have fallen upon the devoted heads of inexperienced officers, by men who have seen whole fortunes fade away at the loss of a single battle. And yet these very officers did the best they could. They have suffered worse than a score of deaths at the mortification of defeat—the crushing responsibility of exposing and losing so many precious lives. In many cases no one could have been at hand to do better. Let the lesson be generalized. It is not confined to military affairs. We have mere theorists in education. We have had those enter our schools as teachers, who have had correct views of education, but no practice; we have had those who from a natural tact have become good practical teachers, with very little knowledge of the theory of education, to say nothing of the many who, in like circumstances, have failed—and we have some who have both theory and practice combined. We have heard much said against Normal Schools and Training Schools, that the power to teach is a gift—not an attainment—we have known of teachers being employed because they could be hired cheap. But when a son or a daughter has the sensibilities maimed for life, the intellectual nature dwarfed, the reasoning faculties perverted, the injured interior nature does not call forth the tear of anguish, as when a

suffering son comes hobbling home on crutches from the war. Yet this is a blight in the mortal, that in the immortal nature. No treasure should be spared to educate our sons and our daughters correctly. Yet how much treasure might be spared, and how much the quality of education might be improved, if the community were but awake to their real needs, and awake to the modes of supplying them. More money is often spent by the wealthy to educate a single son or daughter, than would be requisite to maintain a whole school in the neighborhood where better instruction might be secured. In education as in religion, the Scripture doctrine is true, "No man liveth to himself."

One point of the lesson is this;—we need teachers trained both in the theory and in the practice of education. How shall we obtain them? Here are gentlemen from Pa., from Ill., from Mass., from N. Y., from Minn., from N. J., from Conn., from R. I., from almost any of the Northern States who will answer this question. I think it will be made to appear that in preparing teachers for their profession, we may have a decided advantage over a military school? What is analogous to the actual field of battle, is every day before us. Our Normal and Training Schools are beginning to be arranged so that no one shall go forth from them who has not seen actual service. Such schools *must* furnish good teachers, if to them you will send young men and young women of good common sense.

But let us look a little further into this routine aspect of our education. It exists in many of our schools to a very great extent. The school tasks are to be faithfully committed to memory, and the work is done. In Geography, so far as thought is concerned, locality pertains to the page of the text-book. Instead of exercising the conceptive faculty to take in the idea of continent and ocean, valley and mountain, lake and island, the memory is overtaxed with the insignificant work of arranging the words and phrases of a text-book, so as to give them with fluency and accuracy. A verbal blunder which turns an island into a lake, or a lake into a wheat-field, scarcely elicits a smile. It is but the error of a single word. The rest of the paragraph is right. Whole Books of Geometry have been learned in this way;—and the astonished pupil has been grieved to tears, when the mere order of the letters which designate an angle have been called in question. To him it is of but little consequence whether we say A C B or A B C. But to one who follows the proof, the order is every thing.

Reading lessons, which, if realized, would stir the heart with delight, would give varied and important information—would set

the imagination all a-glow, and be almost equal to a visit to the scenes described—are passed over with nothing but petty criticisms upon inflections, emphasis, cadences, pauses, and so forth, just as though a mind thoroughly imbued with the sentiment would not express its thoughts with naturalness, or as though good reading could be taught by attention to mere external graces.

All our school exercises are liable to be affected with the blight of routine and mere technicality. No subject is taught so wretchedly as the English language. Usually all attempts at cultivation are postponed till the time to use a text-book upon technical Grammar. And then the teaching falls into the worst kind of routine. Instead of this, language as a living thing, should be taught at an early period. It should be regarded as vitally connected with every thing which the child has to attend to in school. If he speaks he uses language; if he writes, he uses language, and in both cases, either correctly or incorrectly. And what renders such opportunities peculiarly fitting and apt, is the fact that the language is the child's own—used instinctively, to express *real, earnest* thought which he conceives—and not the fictitious expressions which he gets up for an exercise, or the dead language of a book. On such a foundation the teacher can begin to build. No text-book can do the work which the teacher must do in this direction. The use of language is not without its fundamental laws. The most obvious of these, the pupil early learns to obey. They should be introduced, at first, neither formally nor technically;—but the pupil should be *made* to use the language correctly, both in conversation and in writing.

Just so far as our teaching lacks the impress of *reality*, it fails of the best effect. Children enter school fresh from a world of *realities.* Every thing real, has its charms. But the instant they are put to learning language as such—either in the mechanical process of putting letters together to form words—or in putting words together to form abstract definitions and rules, the mind loses its interest, and is in danger of falling into that state of indurated stupidity which makes the words of the language empty fossils,—the school tasks, hard work upon the materials of which dreams are made—and the school-room itself a kind of prison, from which escape by any and all fair means, in the chancery of children is justifiable.

Now this kind of education is to be deplored. It is particularly unsuited to the times upon which we have fallen. We need to deal with practical earnest thought. All such instruction as far as possible should be eradicated from our schools. The enlightened educators of England characterize it as American. Their criticism

is too true, and we ought to receive it, and thank them for it, though we might with great pertinency retort "Physician heal thyself."

It is to be deplored as wholly incompatible with the true spirit of freemen. Its very essence is a slavish deference to the mere opinions of others—the authority of a text-book; it is a complete surrender to the spirit of dogmatism—instead of that of truth and realism. Children should learn to pay homage to *truth* as such. They have then a sure guide. To this they should yield an unquestioned *loyalty*. In this way are they prepared to exercise the rights of freemen. Their education liberalizes on the one hand, and guards against unrestrained libertinism on the other. In a community thus trained, civil war could scarcely be possible. In a Republic, civil war must result from a blind deference to the opinions of a few leaders—whose aim is not to enlighten and liberalize, but to inflame prejudice, to inculcate narrow and sectional views. In confirmation, I have only to refer you to the appeals of the Southern leaders for the last four years.

We have, then, before us a specific work, to correct this unfortunate quality in our educational processes. What can such stultifying labor do towards elevating the mass of ignorance in the South, which humanity and patriotism bid us now enlighten? What can it do towards assimilating to the American character the vast influx of foreigners now, sure to seek a permanent home in a free country.

Another lesson too obvious to have escaped the attention of the most casual observer, appears in the very general neglect to exhibit clearly in our schools the genius of our government, and the forms of our political institutions. The vigorous teaching of political heresy, on the one side, has been set over against a wide-spread neglect on the other. I may be wrong, but it does not seem to me, that it is military tactics that we want,—but the universal diffusion of a correct knowledge of our government, national, State, and municipal. It is true that in some of our text-books, there are abstract statements respecting our forms of government. They may have been committed to memory. But to what purpose? Only to serve as an illustration of what has just been said. They have been useless lumber. A few oral lessons showing how a democratic government, like ours, springs up from the people—showing the relation of the people to the state, and to the general government,—of the States to each other, and to the general government, would do more than a thousand such lessons. This defect calls for an immediate reform.

Permit me to call your attention to one lesson more, which, it

seems to me, the war has taught us. It is this; that by whatever influence, personal, political, or religious, men attempt to foster principles and practices which contravene the eternal laws of right, God, in his providence, will over-ride them all, and lay bare the subterfuges, and specious arguments by which they are maintained,—that mere customs which can be defended *only* on the ground that they have descended from pious ancestors, or have been, and are now supported by the influential, and the good, have been made to melt away like dew before the morning sun. When cupidity and selfishness shall presume to interpret for themselves the laws of God's government, He comes forth his own interpreter, and tears down by one breath of his displeasure, the proudest monuments which human beings presume to rear upon injustice and oppression. He overthrows the very foundation which a false philosophy lays to pervert the general sense of right. This has been done in the complete destruction of the system of human bondage, which has cursed our whole country, North and South.

But the events of the war have given us intimation of something more. God has shown us, not only that he lives in the history of the nation, and is ever present by his providence with the people as with the individual, but that he will be *acknowledged* Supreme. The people shall not only *know*, but shall *declare*, that "the Lord, God omnipotent reigneth." Our fathers, in the establishment of this government, for wise and good reasons, made a complete divorce of Church and State. They drew a distinct line between that which belongs to the civil and that which belongs to any merely ecclesiastical establishment,—and yet they did not mean that because a man was in civil life, he could not be a member of the church, nor speak and act on any and all occasions as becomes a Christian man. On the other hand, because a man was a member of the Christian Church, it was not intended, even though high in office, that he should not be heard in civil affairs. He was supposed capable of being an honest Christian and an honest citizen at the same time. Nay, he might hold office in the Church and in the State at the same time; not the latter because he belonged to the former, but because he was personally, and as a citizen, worthy of office. In these distinct capacities, he claimed protection of the State—nothing more. Now, how sadly the abuses which have grown directly or indirectly out of these well-defined relations. Our statesmen have seemed to feel and act in many of their public papers and addresses as if any thing more than a mere cold and formal recognition of the Divine Being or of his providence, was illegal, or, to

say the least, beneath the dignity of a grave state document. In this respect, a careful examination of the public documents on file since the early settlement of this country, will show a marked decline? But what has the war done? It has pressed into utterance through our late lamented chief magistrate, some of the noblest Christian sentiments that ever adorned a State paper in this country or any other. What Christian does not read with delight the late immortal Inaugural? It has extorted the highest commendations from British statesmen. It will live to show, in all coming time, that a man may be both a Christian and a statesman, and can speak in both capacities at the same time—and that without re-uniting Church and State.

But this same influence does not stop here. Owing to the connection between education and the State, it comes forth in the same spirit to rule out all religious instruction that is at all charcteristic, from all schools dependent upon the State, and by an unjust usurpation would assign all such instruction to the fireside, the Sunday-school, and the Church. Now it was not the intention of our Creator that any part of our nature should be left uncultivated. And this prohibition—for it amounts to that,—seems to me contrary to the plain teachings of his providence, as it is contrary to the statutes of many of the States. The arguments adduced in support of it are specious—and the subterfuges to which men, in support of it, resort, will, I believe, be overthrown sooner or later, or God will, in some way, punish this sad neglect. Teach the children morality, we are told, but never resort to the Scriptures or to revealed religion to support your teachings, just as though God would admit the restriction, and my prejudices, or my attachment to some ecclesiastical party, would exonerate me or you from a duty which lies deeper than all party! A Christian education with Christianity left out! The whole idea is absurd. These very persons who exclaim against the teaching of piety and religious truth, are foremost in pressing the importance of moral teaching—but it must be a moral teaching destitute of its vital power,—the mere outward form without the inward spirit. The principal argument against religious instruction, is the danger of some sectarian bias,—the fear of a secret or open proselytism. This is not the teaching in question. God gave us Christianity and bade us promulgate it, —not to scramble for religious sects. The plea, in Heaven's chancery, is not a valid one. And, besides, the danger is vastly exaggerated. Not one teacher in a thousand would risk his reputation and place by prostituting a position generously intrusted to him for any such unworthy purpose.

Besides, it is not the dogmas of any sect that we need. It is Christianity itself, pure and unsullied as it came gushing from the lips and life of the Master. It is its vital power that we want. It is not so much the teaching of Christian doctrine, as it is Christian teaching—teaching which in its very essence shall be fragrant with the spirit that animated our Lord and Master. The very presence of a teacher who is thoroughly imbued with its power, is Christianity in a living form. He fills the atmosphere around him with its sacred fragrance. He wins. He almost unconsciously subjugates his pupils to its power. We have yet much to learn in the art of teaching by studying the example of the Teacher sent from God. I believe that the divine methods of teaching are all found embodied in his practice. While we are ranging the whole realm of Philosophy for the best systems, *he* will reach the highest pinnacle of the art who most nearly imitates the spirit and methods of our Saviour. They were vital and earnest, self-sacrificing and condescending; they were both apt and searching, and, in all cases, were pervaded with the spirit of love and gentleness.

But I hasten to consider the fields which is open before us, and the duty devolving upon us to project suitable plans for occupying it.

The war has created it. The war was begun to extend the same partial system which prevails in the Southern States. It ended in breaking down all the barriers which protected that system. It has thrown open the blessings of education to four millions of liberated slaves, to whom all formal instruction was peremptorily forbidden. They now extend to us the imploring hand, and crave the bread of intellectual and moral life. To these let us add a multitude scarcely better off—the "poor whites"—who must be educated to be prepared to become, in any proper sense of the term, free citizens. These, with the vast influx from abroad which is sure to follow the war, invite us to new, unwonted exertion. It has been said we have sentiment as high as Heaven, but, of action, none. Let this be said no longer. The time has come for action, earnest straightforward unwavering action. Before this meeting shall close, it may appear an obvious duty for this Association to represent its opinions by report, by committee or otherwise, to the General Government. Some scheme must be devised which shall have the sanction and protection of the Government, for the universal education of the Southern people.

On this subject Gen. Howard, who is at the head of the Freedman's Bureau,—and who, it was hoped, would be present at this meeting, writes to me thus:—

I regret to say that it will be impracticable, in consideration of my other duties, to be present at your meeting in Harrisburg. As soon as my last Circular is printed, I will forward it, with others, for consideration at your Convention.

I propose to have a General Superintendent of schools appointed for each State, which is under my supervision with regard to Freedmen's matters. It is only the general superintendency of schools that I am willing to undertake in the present posture of affairs; I would gladly accept, if it were possible to secure it,—a general school system in each State.

We may regard the work already started as a basis of extension. The teachers sent by benevolent associations must multiply assistants from the States where they labor, both black and white. I propose to give all the protection in my power to secure quarters and school-rooms for teachers, when it can be done.

It will be impossible for me to tell at present, or even give a respectable estimate of the number of teachers that can be put into the field this Fall.

After the assistant commissioners have had time to examine their fields and report, something more specific will be reached.

No effort should be spared to foster and extend education in the South, and I believe that by persistency in the presentation of our reasons for educating the poor people of every description, the better part of the Southern people, will, sooner or later, come to see the pressing necessity of an enlightened policy in this matter.

It seems strange that any thinking man would be willing to impede education. Slavery required this hindrance, of course, but no shadow of an excuse can be offered for keeping freedmen or freemen in ignorance. Such truths you will continue to present and disseminate, and whenever we can get local coöperation we will rejoice at it.

Any well-digested plan, with regard to schools, that your Association may agree upon, I shall be glad to get.

Self-sustaining schools should be encouraged in every possible way.

I will add a few of the closing arguments of Rev. Charles Brooks, a well known and thoroughly informed educator of Mass., an advocate in behalf of a National System of Education. He gives them to sustain his views of a National System—a plan of which he sketches in a pamphlet, which, I hope, many of you have read. These remarks are of general application. He says, "We have four millions of liberated slaves who should be educated. They ask it at our hands, and the world expects us to do it; because in the very act of emancipation there is the sacred promise *to educate.* Slavery has kept the word *education* out of our National Constitution. Now four millions of starved minds implore its introduction. These colored people are children in knowledge, and we must begin with A, B, C. They must be educated at the South, where they prefer to live in warm climates. Their former owners will not take the trouble to educate them, and would generally refuse to pay a local tax for that purpose. "Since the Christian era," he says, "there has not been such an opportunity, for such a country, to do such a work: the noblest work man can do. Slavery is dead, and we can now introduce into our Constitution the angelic agency of education. We can now, for the first time, meet the demands of humanity, civilization, and freedom. We can not only teach the

negroes, but we can emancipate the "poor whites" whom ignorance has kept so long in bondage. The old slave States are to be new missionary ground for the national schoolmaster, where, without regard to rank, age or color, he will teach all his pupils that learning and development are the first natural rights of man, and that education is to the human soul what the mainspring is to the watch, what the water-wheel is to the factory, what breath is to the lungs, what light is to the world. The Anglo-Saxon blood on this side of the globe, must faithfully educate and peacefully lead the other races. It is our destiny, and we must fulfill it." Whether a National System is possible or not I am not competent to say. But here is the work to be done. And who, if not this Association, shall express positive opinions upon the best means to be employed.

In conclusion permit me to say, that no period in the history of this country has demanded of its educators such a combination of wisdom and aggressive energy as the present. Patriotism, philanthropy, and Christianity combine to lay under tribute the whole educational talent of the country. May we meet this demand in the spirit of Christian men and Christian women. Let our sessions bear testimony to the spirit of earnestness and devotion which animates the leading educators of the land. Let us gather inspiration from personal fellowship, and this interchange of fraternal good will; and let us return to our several fields of labor, moved anew to the gigantic task which lies before us.

VI. OBJECT TEACHING;

ITS GENERAL PRINCIPLES, AND THE OSWEGO SYSTEM.

Report (drawn up by Prof. S. S. Greene) of a committee appointed by the National Teachers' Association in 1864 to the Annual Meeting in 1865.*

In presenting the report of a large committee, residing at great distances from each other, it is but just to say that nothing like concert of action could be secured.

All the members have been invited to express their opinions upon the subject of the report. The writer alone has visited Oswego for the specific purpose of obtaining the requisite facts. The opinions of the other members, so far as expressed, are the results of their individual experience, their observations of object teaching in Oswego or elsewhere, or of their general views of the possibilities of the system. These opinions will have their appropriate places in the report. An excellent communication from Rev. Dr. Hill, President of Harvard University, obtained at the solicitation of the writer, will also be referred to. It is but just to say that the opinion of Mr. Pennell, of St. Louis, was, as a whole, somewhat adverse to any thing like systematic object teaching.

Without further preliminary remarks, your committee proceed to inquire,

1. What place do external objects hold in the acquisition of knowledge? Are they the exclusive *source* of our knowledge?

2. So far as our knowledge is obtained from external objects as a source, how far can any educational processes facilitate the acquisition of it?

3. Are the measures adopted at Oswego in accordance with the general principles resulting from these inquiries?

That all our knowledge comes from external objects as a *source*, no one who has examined the capacities of the human mind pretends to claim. Yet no inconsiderable part springs directly from this source. Nature itself is but the unfolding and expression of ideals from the great fountain and storehouse of all thought.

---

* The Committee consisted of Barnas Sears, D. D., Providence, R. I.; Prof. S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; J. L. Pickard, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.; J. D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass.; David N. Camp, State Superintendent of Schools, Connecticut; R. Edwards, Principal of Normal School, Illinois; C. L. Pennell, St. Louis, Mo.

With the Creator the ideal is the original, the outward form, its embodiment, or expression. The rose is a thought of God expressed. With us the forms of Nature are the originals, the derived conceptions, our borrowed thoughts, *borrowed*, since it is the thought of the Creator through the mediation of Nature that, entering our minds, becomes our thought. His claim to originality is most valid who approaches nearest the divine source, observes most faithfully, and interprets most accurately. The page of Nature lies open to all. No intellect is so weak as not to read something,—none so profound as to exhaust her unfathomable depths. She has an aspect to attract the gaze of early infancy. She rewards the restless curiosity of childhood. She repays the more thoughtful examinations of youth, and crowns with unfading laurels the profoundest researches of the philosopher. She stimulates by present acquisitions and prospective attainments. The well known of to-day is bordered by the imperfectly known, the attracting field of research for the morrow. What we know and can express is accompanied with much that we know, but have no power at present to express.

Says the Rev. Dr. Hill, "It is the thought of God in the object that stimulates the child's thought." Again, "Text-book and lecture without illustrations frequently fail in giving just and vivid images, and generally fail in awakening that peculiar reverence which may be excited by direct contact with Nature;" and again, "Nature is infinite in its expressions, and a natural object contains more than can be expressed in words. The great object is to teach the child to see and read more than you yourself could express in words." He gives an example in the case of his own child, which very forcibly illustrates this point. "I was walking," he says, "yesterday with my little girl, and showing her plants and insects and birds as we walked along. We were looking at lichens on the trees, when she suddenly and without hint from me said, 'The maple trees have different lichens from the ash; I mean to see if I can tell trees by their trunks without looking at the leaves.' So for a long distance she kept her eyes down, saying to the trees as she passed, '*Elm, maple, ash, pine*,' etc., and never failing. Now, neither she nor I would find it easy to express in words the difference between some of the elms and some of the ashes, though the difference was easy to see." How emphatically true is this last remark! and how true it is that, even if these should at any time be clothed with language, other marks and distinctions would unfold themselves equally obvious to the eye, but quite as difficult to be

expressed? They express themselves to our senses, and through them to our understandings, but we lack words to bind them into our forms of thought. In other words, the forms of nature are filled with thoughts which are, at all times, revealing themselves to us in advance of our power of speech. The thought is infolded in the form, and the form unfolds the thought. It becomes ours only when we have *experienced* it. Human speech may recall, but can never originate it. To be known it must be seen, or realized by the senses. This necessarily lays the foundation for object teaching.

But while Nature is thus the *source* of a vast amount of our knowledge, we have other sources, concerning which the most we can say of the objects in Nature is, they are only the *occasions* which call it forth. It springs spontaneously and intuitively from the depths of the soul. Such thoughts are not in the object, but in the mind. The object neither embodies nor in any way expresses them. It serves merely as the occasion to call them into consciousness. The boy drops his ball into the eddying current, and it passes beyond his reach. Though he may not be in a mood sufficiently philosophical to put into form the intuitive truth that one and the same object can not be in the hand and out of it at the same time, yet his vexation and grief will sufficiently express it. That thought, no one will pretend, is in the ball or in the water, or is expressed by either. It is simply in the mind.

So in the use of a native language, objects are most efficient aids in giving precision to the application of words, but they can never supply that wonderful power of discrimination in the expression of thought which marks the earliest and latest periods of life. Says the Rev. Dr. Sears, the chairman of this committee, "The eloquent speaker does not, in his highest bursts of oratory, first select words and parts of a sentence, and from them afterwards construct a whole, but he begins with the whole, as a germ in his mind, and from it develops the parts. This power in language is instinctive, and can no more be achieved by rules and canons of criticism than can a work of genius. A philosopher with his great intellect can not learn to speak a language idiomatically, feelingly, and naturally, any quicker than a child. The understanding alone may make a linguist, or a critic, but not a natural, fluent, and easy speaker. Study and analysis aid in comprehending language, and in correcting errors; but the native charms of idiomatic and touching English come unbidden from the depths of the soul, from a sort of unconscious inspiration."

Then, again, all subjects which are purely mental, especially those which have as their substance things hoped for, and as their evidence things not seen, are beyond the reach of object lessons. Thoughts, feelings, volitions, intellectual states; all notions of space and time, of æsthetic and moral qualities; all ideas of the absolute and the infinite, and finally, of God, as the unapproached and unapproachable fountain and source of all; all these rise immeasurably above the realm of the senses. Indeed, the introduction of material forms would rather obscure than aid in illustrating many of these subjects. Of these we may form what is logically called a notion by combining their *notæ* or characteristics, but we can never represent them to the eye of the mind by form or image. Objects may have been the *occasion* of calling up many of these ideas, but they are, by no means, the source of them. They address themselves to the interior consciousness alone, never to the senses. All knowledge springing from this source is *rational* rather than *experimental*. Yet let it not be understood that it is entirely dissociated from physical forms. We use this rational knowledge in thousands of ways, in our connection with the external world.

Let us pass to our second inquiry. So far as our knowledge has its source in external objects, how far can any educational processes facilitate the acquisition of it?

The thoughts of the Creator, as expressed in the outer world, would remain forever uninterpreted but for the presence of a knowing, thinking being, whose organism is in harmony with Nature. In early infancy, the minimum if not the zero point of intelligence, there is little or no appearance of such adaptation. We see only a sentient being, impelled chiefly if not wholly by instinct. The highest form of observation results in mere *sensation*. It is akin to that of the brute. Soon, however, the child awakes to the consciousness that what he sees is no part of himself. He distinguishes between himself and the objects around him. His intelligent nature, which before existed only in germ, is called into action. He interprets his sensations, and these interpretations are called *perceptions*. Now commences the period for the spontaneous cultivation of the perceptive faculty. Nature is ready with the proper aliment for its nourishment, and wise is that parent who sees to it that his child receives without stint. This is the period of greatest acuteness of this faculty—the period when an instinctive curiosity supplies the place occupied, later in life, by a determined will. It is the period for absorbing knowledge miscellaneously. Blessed is that child whose lot is cast where Nature in her purest and loveliest

forms daily feasts all his senses. Now is the time for gathering food for the higher faculties which exist either in embryo, or with only a feeble development. The knowledge gained is without order, and purely elementary. During this, which may be called the nursery period, little or no instruction can be given. The faculties act spontaneously, and with very little guidance from without.

Even at this period the faculty of memory must be developed; for the mind instinctively grasps at the *whole* of an object. Yet a single perception gives only the whole of one aspect. Be it a mite, a shell, or a mountain—it must have many aspects—an interior and an exterior. It has parts and properties. After the mind has contemplated every one of these in succession, it can not then form one complete whole without *retaining* all the previous perceptions. This process of *taking together* into one whole all the parts, aspects, and qualities of an object, and drawing off for the use of the mind a kind of photograph or mental picture, is called, as the term signifies, *conception.* It is the result of many varied, attentive, and careful perceptions in connection with memory. These conceptions, again, are laid away in the memory for future use. As they are recalled, and, as it were, placed before the eye of the mind, they have been variously denominated conceptions, concepts, ideas, notions, reproductions, or images. The name is of but little consequence, provided that we all understand them to be the results of perception, addressing themselves to our internal sight or consciousness—that they are quasi-objects, internal *realities*, with corresponding external realities. And yet, in using the term conception or concept, as equivalent to the image mental picture or reproduction of a *single* object, we should be careful to regard it as a conception in its depth and intention, not in the whole breadth or extent of its application; for to reach this requires the exercise of the higher faculties.

In the period of infancy, before the power of speech is developed, children form those conceptions whose very existence stimulates to the use of language. They early become the occasions for distinguishing between what is true and what is false, what has an internal seeming with an external reality, and what has an internal seeming without an external reality. At an early period the mind finds itself able to project forms of its own, to build castles and palaces, create gorgeous scenes, and dwell upon them *as though* they had a corresponding external existence. This power of *imagination* was formerly applied only to that faculty by which new scenes or forms were produced by combinations derived from actual

memory the terms and statements of the text-book, whether they awaken conceptions or not, and to regard the standard of excellence as fluency of utterance and accuracy in repeating terms.

Now against all this way of teaching language, object teaching, in any proper sense of the term, raises an earnest and perpetual protest.

But what is object teaching? Not that so-called object teaching which is confined to a few blocks and cards to be taken from the teacher's desk, at set times, to exhibit a limited round of angles, triangles, squares, cubes, cones, pyramids, or circles; not that which requires the pupil to take some model of an object lesson drawn out merely as a specimen, and commit it to memory; nor is it that injudicious method which some teachers have adopted in order to be thorough, that leads them to develop distinctions which are suited only to the investigations of science; nor is it a foolish adherence to the use of actual objects when clear conceptions have been formed and may take the place of physical forms; nor is it that excessive talking about objects which makes the teacher do every thing, and leaves the child to do nothing,—that assigns no task to be performed—a most wretched and reprehensible practice; nor, again, is it that which makes a few *oral* lessons, without any thing else, the entire work of the school.

But it is that which takes into the account the whole realm of Nature and Art, so far as the child has examined it, assumes as known only what the child knows—not what the teacher knows—and works from the well known to the obscurely known, and so onward and upward till the learner can enter the fields of science or abstract thought. It is that which develops the abstract from the concrete,—which develops the *idea*, then gives the *term*. It is that which appeals to the intelligence of the child, and that through the senses until clear and vivid conceptions are formed, and then uses these conceptions as something *real* and *vital*. It is that which follows Nature's order—the thing, the conception, the word; so that when this order is reversed—the word, the conception, the thing—the chain of connection shall not be broken. The word shall instantly occasion the conception, and the conception shall be accompanied with the firm conviction of a corresponding external reality. It is that which insists upon something besides mere empty verbal expressions in every school exercise—in other words, expression and thought in place of expression and no thought. It is that which cultivates expression as an answer to an inward pressing want, rather than a fanciful collection of pretty phrases culled

from different authors, and having the peculiar merit of sounding well. It is that which makes the school a place where the child comes in contact with *realities* just such as appeal to his common sense, as when he roamed at pleasure in the fields,—and not a place for irksome idleness,—not a place where the most delightful word uttered by the teacher is "dismissed." It is that which relieves the child's task only by making it *intelligible* and *possible*, not by taking the burden from him. It bids him examine for himself, discriminate for himself, and express for himself,—the teacher, the while, standing by to give hints and suggestions,—not to relieve the labor. In short, it is that which addresses itself directly to the eye external or internal, which summons to its aid things present or things absent, things past or things to come, and bids them yield the lessons which they infold,—which deals with actual existence, and not with empty dreams—a living *realism* and not a fossil *dogmatism*. It is to be introduced in a systematic way, if it can be done,—without much form where system is impracticable; but introduced it should be in some way every where. It will aid any teacher in correcting dogmatic tendencies, by enlivening his lessons, and giving zest to his instructions. He will draw from the heavens above, and from the earth beneath, or from the waters under the earth, from the world without, and from the world within. He will not measure his lessons by pages, nor progress by fluency of utterance. He will dwell in living thought, surrounded by living thinkers,—leaving at every point the impress of an objective and a subjective reality. Thoughtful himself, he will be thought-stirring in all his teaching. In fact, his very presence, with his thought-inspiring methods, gives tone to his whole school. Virtue issues unconsciously from his every look and every act. He himself becomes a model of what his pupils should be. To him an exercise in geography will not be a stupid verbatim recitation of descriptive paragraphs, but a stretching out of the mental vision to see in living picture ocean and continent, mountain and valley, river and lake, not on a level plane, but rounded up to conform to the curvature of a vast globe. The description of a prairie on fire, by the aid of the imagination, will be wrought up into a brilliant object lesson. A reading lesson descriptive of a thunder storm on Mount Washington will be something more than a mere conformity to the rules of the elocutionist. It will be accompanied with a conception wrought into the child's mind, outstripped in grandeur only by the scene itself. The mind's eye will see the old mountain itself, with its surroundings of gorge and cliff, of woodland and barren rock, of

deep ravine and craggy peak. It will see the majestic thunder-cloud moving up, with its snow-white summits resting on walls as black as midnight darkness. The ear will almost hear the peals of muttering thunder as they reverberate from hill to hill.

A proper care on the part of the teacher may make such a scene an all-absorbing lesson. It is an object lesson—at least, a quasi-object lesson—just such as should be daily mingled with those on external realities. To give such lessons requires, on the part of the teacher, a quickened spirit—a kind of intellectual regeneration. Let him but try it faithfully and honestly, and he will soon find himself emerging from the dark forms of Judaism into the clear light of a new dispensation. Indeed, this allusion contains more than a resemblance. The founder of the new dispensation was called, by way of eminence, "The Master." In him was embodied and set forth the art of teaching. He was the "teacher come from God" to reveal in his own person and practice God's ideal of teaching. And did he not invariably descend to the concrete even with his adult disciples? Hence it was that the common people heard him gladly. Whoever will study the lessons given by him will see with what unparalleled skill he passed from concrete forms up to abstract truths. He seldom commenced with the abstract. "A sower went forth to sow;" "A certain man had two sons;" "I am the vine, ye are the branches," are specimens of the way he would open a lesson to unfold some important abstract truth. The best treatise on object teaching extant is the four Gospels. Commencing as if he discovered an interior fitness in the object itself, he would lay under contribution the wheat, the tares, the grass, the lilies, the water, the bread, the harvest, the cloud, or the passing event, and that to give some important lesson to his disciples.

The abstract we must teach, but our *teaching* need not be abstract. We may approach the abstract through the concrete. We must do it in many cases. And the methods of our Saviour are the divine methods informally expressed in his life. Let us reverently study them, and enter into the spirit with which they were employed. Such, in brief, are the fundamental uses of objects; such the adaptation of the human mind in its development to external Nature; such its growth and ever increasing capacity to interpret the revelations of her myriad forms; and such the wonderful power of language.

Let us now commence at the period when it is proper for a child to enter school. What is to engross his attention now? In any system of teaching, all concede that one of his first employments should be to learn the new language—the language of *printed sym-*

bols addressed, not to the ear, but to the eye. And here commence the most divergent paths. The more common method is to drop entirely all that has hitherto occupied the child's attention, present him with the alphabet, point out the several letters, and bid him echo their names in response to the teacher's voice. By far the greatest portion of his time is passed in a species of confinement and inactivity, which ill comports with his former restless habits. Usually occupied in his school work but twice—and then for a few moments only—during each session, he advances from necessity slowly, and this imprisonment becomes irksome and offensive. To one who is not blinded by this custom, which has the sanction of a remote antiquity, the inquiry naturally forces itself upon his attention,—Is all this necessary? Must the child, because he is learning a new language, forget the old? May he not be allowed to speak at times, even in school, and utter the vital thoughts that once filled his mind with delight? May he not have some occupation that shall not only satisfy the restless activities of his nature, but also shall gratify his earnest desire for knowledge? Must he be made to feel that the new language of printed letters has no relation to the old? Does he reach the goal of his school work, as too often seems the case, when he can pronounce words by looking at their printed forms? Why not recognize in the printed word the same vital connection between the word and the thought as before? Why not follow the dictates of a sound philosophy—the simple suggestions of common sense—and recognize the fact that the child comes fresh from the school of Nature, where actual scenes and real objects have engrossed his whole attention, and have been the source of all that has made his life so happy? If so, then why not let him draw freely from this source while learning to read; nay, as far as possible, make the very act of learning to read tributary to the same end, and, at the earliest possible time, make it appear that the new acquisition is but a delightful ally of his present power to speak? The transition from his free and happy life at home to the confinement of the school-room will be less painful to him, and at the same time it will be apparent that the school is not a place to check but to encourage investigation.

Such inquiries as these have occupied the minds of intelligent educators who have ventured to question the wisdom of past methods. And they have led to the introduction of methods designed to occupy the time, and give interesting employment to the children. They have led to the introduction of objects familiar and interesting. Lessons are drawn from them which give the same im

pression of *practicalness* and *reality* as the children received before the restraints of school life commenced. They lead to direct and animated conversation between the teacher and the pupils. They are thus instrumental in revealing to the teacher the defective and scanty *language* of the children. At the same time they furnish the best means for cultivating the use of words. Lessons on objects do vastly more. By means of these the teacher soon learns that the children have not used their *perceptive faculties* to good advantage. Their observations have been careless and negligent. Their conceptions are consequently faulty. He has it in his power now to quicken this faculty, and correct defective conceptions. More than this, he has a plan for the future. The very points which he wishes the children to observe now are to become hereafter the basis of scientific knowledge. Thus form and color, weights and measures, part and qualities, are carefully observed.

So, again, the very acquisition of the printed language becomes a kind of object lesson. The sound of a familiar word is given, its meaning is known and recognized,—its elementary parts are drawn out and given both by the teacher and the pupils,—the characters or letters are applied and placed upon the blackboard. The sounds are combined into the spoken word, the letters into the printed, and the word, whether printed or spoken, is instantly associated with the idea.

Work for the slate is now prepared; the letters are to be made by the children, the words to be formed, the meaning to be made out. Reading from the slate or the blackboard is soon commenced, and it must have the peculiar merit of uttering thoughts familiar to the child. Any child can read understandingly what he has himself developed and written with his own hand. The teacher develops new thoughts; but they are thoughts drawn directly from present objects, and recorded upon the board or the slate. They can not be tortured by that blundering, drawling utterance which the school-room usually engenders and tolerates. Language can be cultivated from a new point of view. The spoken and written word can be compared. The errors of home and street life are more readily corrected.

These several processes of developing and writing or printing keep all the children at work. Instead of having seven-eighths of their time devoted to irksome idleness, the children have something *to do*, all of which contributes efficiently to, at least, three distinct ends—learning to read more rapidly and more intelligently,—advancing in useful knowledge for present purposes,—laying the founda-

tion for future growth by a correct acquisition of the elements of knowledge.

The habit which children thus early acquire of *putting on record* what they learn or develop can not be too highly valued. In the ordinary methods of teaching, they look upon all attempts at composition with a sort of dread from which they seldom recover through their whole school life. But in this way, from the beginning, they grow up to the daily habit of composing their own real thoughts under the guidance of the teacher.

But the chief and highest advantage of giving these lessons lies not so much in any one, or perhaps in all of these, as in its direct influence upon the *teacher himself*. It can not be pursued even tolerably well without making it manifest to any one that the great object of teaching is to deal with *ideas* rather than to crowd the memory with words. He who can give an object lesson well is capable of giving any lesson well, because he has learned that it is the *reality* and not the expression of it that is the chief object to be gained. He who makes it his first, second, and last aim to teach *realities*, will soon discover two essential conditions. He must know the present capacity and attainments of the child, and then *what* realities are suited to them. If it were not for one fact, our Primary Schools would be filled with a cabinet of natural objects as varied as those that fill halls of our highest institutions, and that is the simple fact that children *can* remember words *as words*, without associating them with any idea whatever. They can use words which mean much, yet with them they mean nothing. They can repeat them fluently,—give emphasis to them in imitation of the teacher's voice. They can use them *as though* they really meant something. Yet more—they can see that the teacher accepts them as though all was right. Now here is a double evil. The teacher is a stranger to the child's real condition, and the child supposes he is actually learning something.

One reason why so many are opposed to Object Teaching—or Reality Teaching it should be called—is the simple fact that they can not readily free themselves from the impression that their knowledge of the subjects to be taught is somehow necessarily connected with the language of the text-book. They have never tried to disengage it from the particular forms into which some author has molded it. They use technical terms—and the worst of technical terms—because they know no other. There is an almost servile dependence upon the use of certain terms. And if the whole truth were known, it might appear that the idea is not sufficiently mas-

tered to disengage it from the term. How can such a teacher do otherwise than cling to authority?

Yet the very essence of teaching lies in a living apprehension of the subject itself—such an apprehension as will enable the teacher to adapt his instruction to the child's real wants—just what a text-book, if good, can not do. "*Teach realities*" is the true teacher's motto. To this he commits himself;—nay, crosses the river and burns the bridge. He is ashamed of his teaching if it is any thing short of this. Hence, his ingenuity, his aptness, his versatility, his varied resorts in an emergency. He can teach with a text-book, or without it. A text-book in his hand becomes *alive*. It must be understood.

Would you *really* know whether a candidate for the teacher's office is a good teacher or not? You need not examine him with difficult questions in Arithmetic, in Algebra, in Geography, or in History. You need not examine him at all. But put him into the school-room, take from it every printed page for the use of the teacher or pupil. Give him blackboards,—give them slates. Let him have ears of corn, pine cones, shells, and as many other objects as he chooses to collect, and then require him to give lessons in reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and the English language. If the children come home full of curious questions,—if they love to talk of what they do at school, if at the end of a week you find them thinking earnestly of their occupation at school,—deeply interested,—intent upon their school exercises,—then employ him,—employ him at any price, though he may not have graduated at the University, the Academy, or even the Normal School. Whenever needed, allow him or the children books. You are sure of a good school.

How much is the spirit of that teacher improved who leads his pupil *directly* to the fountain of truth, and pays willing homage to it as truth! Teachers may be divided in this respect into three classes. The first are those who are servilely bound to a text-book; who are scarcely able to conceive a truth apart from the ancient term employed to express it; who never see it in its freshness; sticklers for exact verbal recitations; formalists, not to say dogmatists; inveterate advocates for authority, and firm defenders of what they regard as a healthful conservatism in education.

The second are those who have so far broken away from the trammels of methods and forms as to investigate the truth for themselves; who taste its vivifying power, draw from its pure sources, but who are anxious to promulgate and perpetuate, not so much

the truth, *as truth*, as their own opinions of it; who would make themselves the head of a party or school, having followers who think as they think, believe as they believe, employ terms as they employ terms, defend methods and forms as they defend them; influential they are and must be. They do good; they are lights in the profession.

The third class are those who are anxious,—not that their pupils should see the truth just as they see it, but that they should *see* and *experience* the truth itself;—solicitous, not to propogate views, but living truth; not the Rabbi who would reject the audible voice from above, if not uttered first to the priest and through him to the people, but rather Eli bidding the young prophet elect, about to succeed him in office, to enter the audience chamber of the Almighty to hear the voice for himself;—nay, Eli directing the *boy*, his own *pupil*, to return with a faithful *report* of what he hears.

These are they who rise to the true dignity of the teacher's profession; who lead their pupils into communion with nature, because she unfolds the thoughts of the Eternal One; who reverence *truth*, rather than the dogmas of any sect or party; who aim rather to render their own services unnecessary, than to restrain, for any selfish end, a free access to the truth.

Such are some of the uses of Object Teaching in the broad and true sense of the term. That any faultless system can be devised to carry it out we may not hope. That all persons will be equally successful in practicing it is too much to expect. That something called Object Teaching has been tried and failed as, with the methods employed, it ought to do, no one denies. That some have pursued a kind of Object Teaching, and have met with indifferent success, is also conceded. It should never be the only exercise of the school-room. It should never displace regular work, but rather become a part of it. It should give life and zest to it. It should never be made a hobby, or carried to an extreme. It should never be used as an end. On this point Mr. Pickard, a member of the committee, says:—

(1.) I fear that Object Teaching, as generally conducted, looks rather to immediate than to less showy, but more valuable, results.

(2.) Its tendency, unless very carefully checked, is to make of children passive recipients, while teachers *talk* more than they *instruct*.

(3.) Carefully used, it will awaken to new thought, and will encourage to the mastery of difficulties suggested or rather thrown in the way of pupils. But only master minds can so use it. Not every school teacher has the power of Agassiz.

(4.) And yet the nature of the child demands such teaching, and will not be satisfied without it, though not by any means, as I conceive, to the exclusion of other methods of teaching. Object Teaching is very good; but if it have no object, it is thenceforth good for nothing but to be trodden under foot of men.

Again, object lessons should not be allowed to fall into a mere routine, or to follow implicitly the models of some text-book, and not the leadings of the subject in question, gathering inspiration from some incidental circumstance which may change the shape of the lesson. They may often be made more apt and opportune by some occurrence, as a thunder-storm, or the presence of some impressive scene. They should be varied with every varying occasion, varied in form, varied in matter, varied in the manner of giving them, and cease as formal exercises whenever the pupil can draw thoughts skillfully and successfully from the abstract statements of a text-book.

There remains yet one subject to be considered. Shall children never begin with the abstract? Shall they never commit to memory forms which are beyond their comprehension? These are fair questions, and should be candidly and fairly answered.

We will not say, that in no case should such matter be committed to memory. It has been the practice for ages. Able and distinguished educators have advocated it. The custom of requiring simple memoriter recitations prevails in many of our schools. Shall it continue? Or shall all intelligent and earnest educators enter upon an important reform in this direction?

The most strenuous advocates of this kind of teaching do not claim that for intellectual purposes abstract statements are of any material value till explained or illustrated, or till the mind of the learner has grown up to them. They readily admit that, while borne in mind by mere force of memory *as words*, they can yield no immediate fruit. But they claim—

1. That such work furnishes the children something to do in the way of *private* or *solitary* study between the hours of recitation, and does much towards establishing early *habits* of study.

2. That the very act of committing to memory is a good discipline for that faculty.

3. That the terse and well-considered statements of a good text-book are better than any that the learner can substitute, and are, therefore, good models of the use of language.

4. That, if held in the memory sufficiently long, these statements will at length yield up their meaning, at first faintly, later along more clearly, and finally with their full significance and breadth of meaning.

5. That they are ever furnishing the child, ready at hand, subjects for an intellectual struggle, being results which minds more mature than his have reached by processes of thought to which he should always aspire.

6. That the power to utter forms of thought at present not comprehended inspires in the learner a most salutary habit of paying due deference to authority; of looking with veneration—even reverence—upon the productions of the gifted minds both of our own times and of the distant past, and that there can be no better cure for flippancy and self-conceit.

To consider these points, which we hope have been fairly stated, and to which we are inclined to give due weight, let us resume the subject of conceptions or concepts, partially examined in a previous part of this report.

When all the parts, attributes, marks, or qualities, etc., which make up an individual object, are brought together into one whole, we have a concept only in its depth or intention. If we give it a name—which for the present shall apply to this *one* object alone—the name calls up the conception, and we realize it by its *form* and *image*. Let us call it a *concrete* concept. At an earlier period the faculty of *comparison* is called into exercise. The understanding begins to elaborate the material which the perceptive faculty has received. The *terrier* with which the child has played so often resembles others which he meets, in so many particulars, that he instinctively applies the term *terrier* to each and all which bear the characteristic marks of this species. But to do this he has sacrificed so many individual characteristics, such as *form*, *size*, *color*, etc., that the concept thus extended has lost its power of presenting to the eye of the mind any *individual* of the species, and must continue so until to some *one* of the class the mind restores all the marks, qualities, or characteristics which have been *taken away*—that is, *abstracted*—from it. It extends to *many* individuals, but has deprived each of *many* characteristic marks. The concept or conception, thus considered, may be called *abstract*, and can not be realized by *form* or *image* as before.

But the work of abstraction does not stop here. Deprive this concept of a few of its marks, do the same with that of the *spaniel*, the *hound*, the *mastiff*, the *pointer*, etc., and the remaining marks unite in one higher concept, embracing each species directly and each individual indirectly, and thus we have the one concept of concepts, called *dog*. In a similar manner we rise to the higher concept *carnivora*; still higher to *mammalia*; and so on to *animal*; till at length we end in *thing* or *being*. And here we have an abstract concept of the highest order. Now it is perfectly obvious that, at every stage of advancement in this hierarchy of concepts, what is gained in one direction is lost in the other. At every stage

the concept is more difficult to be realized. Almost any child would shrink from the attempt to ascend the scale. And yet how often children must use such terms as *being, science, art*, etc., if they learn the definitions contained in books!

Now in the judgment of mature minds it is the peculiar merit of a text-book or treatise, that it is *comprehensive;* that is, that its terms are so *abstract* as so embrace the *whole* subject. And to a thoroughly disciplined mind, the test of an author's skill is his nice adjustment of these abstract terms. Hence you hear the commendation, "I admire the comprehensiveness of his rules and definitions." This is a commendation for any text-book. And that which makes it so good for the scholar is what makes it so bad for the child. He commits the beautifully comprehensive terms to the memory, but nothing to the understanding, simply because he has never been able to ascend the lofty scale of abstractions sufficiently high to reach the meaning.

All philosophy unites in condemning the practice of descending with children so deep into concrete forms as to draw out distinctions and terms which belong to science. Such work should be postponed.

What philosophy is that which would bid a child pass to the other extreme, and bear in his memory for years the names of conceptions which can be realized only by ascending through a continued series of abstractions?

The true philosophy would seem to be to begin with the concrete forms around us, and while we should be careful on the one hand not to penetrate too deep in our search of individual attributes and characteristics, we should be equally careful, on the other hand, not to rise too high into the regions of abstract thought, but advance in both directions as the growing capacities of the learner will admit.

With this aspect of our conceptions, let us examine the several arguments for committing to memory abstract statements as yet not understood.

That the committing to memory of such statements does furnish employment for the children all will admit. That the employment is a *good* one is not so clear. Yet it is better than none—always preferable to unmitigated idleness. Ragged and hungry children had better be employed in providing food and clothing for their prospective wants at the period of maturity rather than be allowed to roam the streets without occupation. But in looking upon their present pressing needs, you could but exclaim at the misfortune of their lot, when all around them the most attracting fields, with

rewards for present use, were inviting them to labor. So it is in school. Children may be fully occupied upon concrete forms which are fitted for present use, will contribute to their intellectual growth, and will give zest and enjoyment at the same time, and aid them in rising to the simpler abstractions.

As to the second argument, that the act of committing to memory even words is an exercise of the memory. We admit it, but can not call it a *good* one. How much better the exercise would be if at the same time thoughts were understood; how much more readily the memory would retain the expressions themselves; how much more philosophical and natural the associations; how much more healthful the habits which would ensue; and how needless the practice when the children can just as well be required to commit what they understand!

In respect to the cultivation of language enough has already been said. No more unphilosophical or ineffectual method could be adopted than to force upon the memory even the choicest expressions if they convey no thought.

It is true that mere expressions may be retained in the memory,—and it is also true that they may, after a time, yield their appropriate meaning,—but admitting this, how much better it would be for children to commit to memory what they can understand, what will administer to their present growth! Besides, the habits of retaining in the mind undigested expressions has, in one respect, a most pernicious effect. The mind becomes *hardened* into a state of intellectual indifference as to the meaning of words—a kind of mental dyspepsia which it is extremely difficult to eradicate. Then, again, instead of faint glimmerings of the true meaning, children are quite as apt to attach to abstract expressions fanciful, inappropriate, or absurd significations, which haunt and annoy them up to mature life. In all this we refer to expressions wholly beyond their capacity.

The time will come when children must deal with abstract thought presented in text-books; when instead of passing from objects to terms, from verities to statements, the order must be reversed; they must interpret terms, verify statements; in other words, draw thoughts from books. And this is an important part of school training. If wisely arranged, their studies will lie within their reach. The thoughts, though abstract, will not be found so high in the scale of conceptions as to be wholly beyond their capacity,—though higher, it may be, than they have as yet ascended. Shall they commit the statements of such thoughts to memory? That is, in preparing their lessons from books, if some passages shall not be

understood at the time, shall they, notwithstanding, be learned for discussion at the time of recitation?

In many cases we should most certainly say yes; not because, intrinsically, it is always the best thing for the learner, but from the necessities of the case, and because the struggle for possible thought, with the assurance that ultimate victory is near at hand, is always salutary. And here the skillful teacher will hold the problem before the learner in such a way that the relief itself shall be the reward of effort; and this leads directly to the answer of the fifth point. The struggle will be healthful only when the thought is within the pupil's reach. Otherwise it will lead to discouragement or utter prostration.

We come now to consider a point which is strongly urged, especially by those of a conservative tendency,—namely, that the masterly thoughts of gifted minds, even though not understood, have the beneficial effect of inspiring reverence for standard authority, and in checking shallowness and conceit. Be it so. These are qualities that should receive the teacher's attention; the one to be cultivated, the other suppressed. Every teacher should watch with jealous care all *moral* developments. But in a question of *intellectual* culture, let us not suffer any incidental issue to turn our thoughts from the main question.

Children and adults will, on all sides, come in contact with both the uncomprehended and incomprehensible. Providence has placed us in the midst of the vast and the sublimely great. We can not avoid being awe-struck and humbled. If, nevertheless, the young will persist in their conceits, administer whole pages of Butler's Analogy, but do it, just as a physician administers colchicum, for the purpose of depletion,—not to promote physical growth. In the processes of teaching the young to *comprehend* thought, we should never sacrifice time and strength by beginning with the highly abstract and difficult. The principles on this point have already been laid down.

We come now to the final question:—Does the plan pursued at Oswego conform to these general principles?

We answer unhesitatingly—in the main it does. It may not be right in all its philosophy, or in all its practice. Whether the practice is better than the philosophy, or the philosophy than the practice, we will not pretend to say. Neither is it our object or purpose to appear as champions of the system, to defend it against attacks, or to cover up what is faulty. We simply appear to report it, and our opinions upon it, so far as the examinations of one week will enable us to do.

OSWEGO SYSTEM OF OBJECT TEACHING.

But what is the Oswego system? The schools of the city—a city of some twenty-three thousand inhabitants—are divided into four grades—Primary, Junior, Senior, and High—corresponding to the Primary, Secondary or Intermediate, Grammar, and High schools of other cities. Besides these grades, there is an unclassified school continued through the year, to meet the wants of pupils who are not well adapted to the graded schools; and yet another kept in winter, to accommodate those who can attend only during that season. Each grade is subdivided into classes named in the order of rank from the lowest, C, B, A. Something like the object system was introduced in 1859. But in 1861 these peculiar features were more fully developed. Previous to the last date the schools were in session six hours per day. Since that time the daily sessions have been shortened one hour in all the schools.

The peculiar system called the "object system" was introduced at first into only the Primary grade. In 1861 it had gained so much favor with the School Board, that a Training School was established under the direction of Miss Jones, from the Home and Colonial Institution, London. At present the system has reached the Junior schools, and now prevails throughout the two lower grades.

The Training School, which forms a prominent feature of the system, is at present established in the Fourth Ward school building. Besides the Training School, this building contains a city Primary with its classes A, B, C,—a Junior A, B, C, and a Senior A, B, C. Each Primary and each Junior school throughout the city is provided with a permanent principal and permanent assistant for each of the classes. In the Fourth Ward schools, however, only one assistant is permanently appointed. The place of the second assistant is supplied from the Training School. The exercises in these two grades are the same throughout the city,—except in the building of the Training School, where additional exercises, hereafter to be described, are introduced. In this building, then, we shall find the ordinary lessons in "Object Teaching," as well as the peculiar lessons of the Training School. Let us enter any Primary school at the beginning of the year, with the C class at the age of five, fresh from home life, for the first time to enter upon school duties. They come with their slates and pencils—and this is all. Their first exercise is not to face the alphabet arranged in vertical or horizontal column, and echo the names of the letters after the

teacher in response to the question,—"What is that?"—a question the teacher knows they can not answer, and, therefore, ought not to ask. But some familiar object—one of the boys of the class, it may be—is placed before them, and called upon to raise his hand—the class do the same. This is beginning with the known. Then he is called upon to raise his right hand. This may be an advance into the obscurely known; the class do the same if they can make the proper distinction; if not, the first lesson marks *clearly* the distinction between the right hand and the left. Something *real* and *tangible* is done. The children can now distinguish between the right ear and the left ear, the right eye and the left eye. Here is acquired knowledge *applied.*

But what of their slates? The teacher may first give a lesson—*practical*, of course—on the use of the slate and pencil. Standing at the blackboard, she utters the sound represented by some letter, as *t*. The class utters it. They repeat it till the sound becomes a distinct object to the ear. She then prints upon the board the letter *t*. This becomes an object to the eye. She points to it and gives the sound—they repeat the sound. She points again—they repeat. She gives the sound—they point. Two objects are *associated.* Now in their seats the letter *t* is to be made upon their slates till the next lesson is given. In this second lesson an advance is made upon the parts of the human body, or another sound,—as the short sound of *a* is given, then the character as before. Now the two sounds are put together,—then the two letters. Two objects are *combined*, and we have the word *at.* But before this lesson is given the children go through with a series of physical exercises. Perhaps, next, the whole class is sent to the sides of the room. Here is a narrow shelf answering both as a table and a ledge to the blackboard. Under this are apartments containing beans. The children take them one by one and count. They arrange them in sets of two or three, etc. They unite one and one—that is, bean to bean—one and two, etc. They take away one from two, one from three, and so on. They now return to their seats and make marks upon their slates to take the place of the beans. In short, this Primary room is a busy workshop—not one idle moment.

One year is passed in this manner. The children have learned many useful lessons; have mastered a set of Reading Cards;—have learned to spell many words involving the short sounds of the vowels and most of the consonants. They have lessons on form and color; on place and size; on drawing, or moral conduct; and these are changed once in two weeks.

They are now promoted to the B class. They commence reading from the primer. They can write upon their slates and form tables. They have object lessons more difficult and more interesting. They can read the statement of the facts developed as they are drawn off upon the board. They can write them themselves. They now learn to make their own record of facts upon their slates. Their written work is examined and criticised. They read their own statements, and do it with ease and naturalness, because the thoughts are their own. They learn to represent numbers with figures. They make out numerical tables for addition and subtraction, not by copying, but by actual combinations with beans or otherwise. They thus *realize* these tables. In short, a mingling of object lessons with writing, spelling, reading, singing, physical exercise, adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing, elementary geography, and natural history, occupies their attention through the first three years. All the lessons are given objectively. The children *realize* what they learn; and this is not the mere theory of the system—it is, in the main, the *actual* working of the plan. The schools are not all equally good. The teachers are not all equally imbued with the spirit of the system. There were failures. There were misconceptions of the objects aimed at, and misconceptions of the method of reaching it. There were given lessons which were superior,—even brilliant. Others were fair,—perhaps moderate.

In the Junior grade similar but more advanced lessons are given, until the pupils are prepared for the Senior schools, where these peculiar characteristics cease. As to the time occupied by these peculiar lessons,—or general exercises,—it should be said that two exercises per day are given of from fifteen to thirty minutes each in the Primary schools, and one only in the Junior. And yet be it remembered that all the exercises in the ordinary school work are intended to be true object lessons.

Let us now pass to the Training School. Here, it should be borne in mind, are regular Primary and Junior schools under permanent teachers, who act the part both of model teachers and critics before the members of the Normal School—or Training class. The members of this class become alternately pupils and teachers, known under the name of pupil-teachers. At the beginning of the term they are assigned to act as assistants one half-day and as pupils the other, alternating with each other during the term, so that each may go through every exercise. The regular teacher gives a lesson to the class. The assistants observe and mark the methods as models for imitation both as respects the steps in the lesson, and

the management of the class under instruction. One of the assistants—a pupil-teacher—next gives a lesson. She is now under a double criticism; first, from her equals—the other pupil-teachers present; and second, from the regular teacher. She is not doing *fictitious*, but *real* teaching. She has not first to imagine that a class of adults is a class of children, and then she is to give a specimen lesson. Nor has she a class of specimen children. She has a class of children sent to school for *real* purposes, by parents who entertain other views than to have their sons and daughters made mere subjects for experimenting.

There is work under the feeling of responsibility, with all the natural desire to succeed—nay, to excel. Under these circumstances, the merits or demerits of her lesson will be pretty surely made known to her.

The superiority of this plan over any other for Normal training is obvious. Some of these pupil-teachers evinced great presence of mind and no little skill.

But now the scene changes; these pupil-teachers return to the room of the Training class, and their places are supplied by the retiring set. In this room the theory of teaching is discussed, and exemplified by practical lessons given by the Normal teachers to small classes of children brought in from the Primary or Junior grades. These lessons are to be drawn off by the class and examined as illustrations of the theory. Then, again, a pupil is called upon to give a lesson to a similar class,—while both the Training class and teacher act as critics. The points of excellence and of defect are freely discussed, and practical hints as to the method of the lesson, its effect upon the class, etc., etc., are freely given. Under this kind of training a most efficient corps of teachers is prepared to fill all vacancies, and give increased vitality to the schools throughout the city.

The system has been modified from time to time as new suggestions have come up, or as theoretic plans have been tested. Farther experience will undoubtedly result in other changes.

The lessons in the English language had some points of great merit.

The habit of *writing* exercises by all the pupils every hour of the day can not fail to secure ease of expression with the pen. And with the incessant care that is practiced at the outset by the teachers to secure neatness and order in the writing, correctness in the use of capitals and punctuation marks, accuracy of expression and faultless spelling, is laying a most excellent foundation for a high order of scholarship.

The opportunity for cultivating correct habits of conversation, which is afforded during the object lessons, does more than any other one thing to promote a good use of language in speaking. The children are uttering living thought and not text-book language. Their own habits of of using words come out conspicuously, and are made subjects of cultivation.

The more formal lessons in language were, in the main, admirably conducted. Here the teacher made use of objects present, or the conceptions of familiar objects absent, and accepted for the time any or all of the various expressions employed by the pupils to enumerate their ideas of the same action or event. Then came the question of a final choice among them all. A box was moved along the table, and the children gave—"The box *moves, is pushed, is shoved, slides*, etc." A very large majority chose the expression "*slides*."

Occasionally the sentences and forms of expression had a bookish aspect, and lacked spontaneousness; and there were enough of these, if captiously seized upon, to make the method appear ridiculous. So again expressions and terms were sometimes evolved, which would not be out of place in a scientific treatise. These were accepted of course. But if used too frequently, they would seem like the coat of a young man placed upon a mere boy. These, however, at most were but spots on the face of the sun. The whole plan was admirable in theory and in practice.

The spelling exercises were multiplied and varied. The children had regular spelling lessons. They wrote words upon the slate. They wrote on the board. They spelled orally for the teacher when she wrote, and they spelled on all occasions.

On the whole, the view which Mr. Camp, the Superintendent of Public Schools for the State of Connecticut, a member of this Committee, gives of his observations on Object Teaching, were fully confirmed here. He says:—"Having had an opportunity to observe the methods pursued in Object Teaching in Boston, Mass., Oswego, N. Y., Patterson, N. J., and at Toronto and Montreal, Canada, and in connection with other methods in some other places, I will, at your request, give the results as they appeared to me. Whenever this system has been confined to elementary instruction, and has been employed by skillful, thorough teachers, in unfolding and disciplining the faculties, in fixing the attention, and awakening thought, it has been successful. Pupils trained under this system have evinced more of quickness and accuracy of perception, careful observation, and a correctness of judgment which results from accurate

discrimination and proper comparisons. They have seemed much better acquainted with the works of nature, and better able to understand allusions to nature, art, and social life, as found in books. But when 'Object Lessons' have been made to supplant the use of books in higher instruction, or when scientific knowledge has been the principal object sought in these lessons, the system has not been successful, so far as I have been able to observe the results."

In conclusion it should be said, that it is no small commendation of the system, that all the ground formerly gone over in the two lower grades is accomplished now in the same time, and that in daily sessions of five hours instead of six. The plan renders school life to the little children far less irksome than before. The teachers generally, who have adopted and practiced it, give it their unqualified approval, The Board of Education and their intelligent and indefatigable Superintendent see no cause to return to the old methods, but, on the contrary, are more and more pleased with its practical working. That the citizens of a town, in former years not specially noted for literary or educational progress, should from year to year sustain and encourage it, nay, take an honest pride in increasing the facilities for carrying it forward, is proof positive that it has intrinsic merit. And finally, that the State of New York should make ample provision to support its Training School, shows that the thinking men of the State see in the system something more than mere tinsel and outward show.

VII. NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY RICHARD EDWARDS, A. M,

President of the Illinois Normal University.

In this country we are jealous of government. Our political notions are in a great measure derived from the maxims of Jefferson, one of which was that, other things being equal, that government is best which governs least. This wholesome rule we are inclined to carry to its full extent. So that every new function assumed by the powers in authority at once startles us, and quickens our sense of incipient tyranny into an almost preternatural degree of intensity. We insist that the individual, to perfect his happiness, needs only letting alone. That all those enterprises necessary to the improvement of the man, and the development of society, will grow up of themselves when the time for them comes. And that it is an impertinent interference on the part of the government, State or national, to inaugurate and carry forward any new enterprise, simply because it seems to hold out the promise of being a public benefit. We do not ask the government to make us healthy or wealthy or wise. All we require of it is protection while we are making ourselves so. And there are no doubt those among us who would indignantly forego health and wisdom, whatever they might do in respect to the other, rather than empower the government to be their benefactor.

And this extreme jealousy of delegated authority is, in a republic, a wholesome sentiment. Tyranny gathers up its powers under specious pretenses. And the most common and convenient of all these is the public good. It is easy for a man loving power—and what man loves it not—to persuade himself, and to attempt to persuade others, that the public good demands that he should be intrusted with as much of it as possible.

Now notwithstanding this democratic tendency among our people, so strong has been the conviction of the necessity of universal intelligence among us, that in most of our States—and those the most democratic—there has been established, by State authority, a system of free schools, which furnishes the sole means of culture to

an immense majority of our citizens. By the exercise of a wise discretion we have refrained, in this matter of education, from pushing the jealousy of government to its extremest verge. For we have seen that such a course if not suicidal to us as a republic, would be at least highly injurious. The State that educates all its children supplies the arms with which they may successfully defend themselves against its own illegal assumptions of power. In any aspect of the case, a system of free schools, under the patronage of the State, comes to more than it costs. It imparts more freedom than it takes away, and in addition, secures to the million all the increased manliness and all the higher and nobler sources of happiness that result from culture.

Of course it follows from this, that the more perfect the culture is, the greater is the gain—in freedom, in happiness, and in manhood. Every State, therefore, in which the people are to rule, ought, as a means of enlarging the freedom and improving the character of that people, to establish a system of free schools, and to make that system as perfect as it can be made.

By what measures this perfection can be most nearly attained is a question for enlightened supervision to decide. It belongs to the department of educational statesmanship—a department which, after having been neglected for centuries, is now just beginning to receive some attention. At present, however, we have to do with only one of these measures or instrumentalities—that of *Normal Schools* or Teachers' Seminaries. And we wish to show that whatever reasons may be assigned for the establishment by the State of free schools, may be urged with equal force in favor of the support, by the same authority, of institutions for the proper training of *teachers* for these schools. The success of a school depends more upon the character and qualifications of the teacher than upon any one other circumstance, or perhaps all other circumstances combined. So important, relatively, is this element of success, that the commonly received adage—"As is teacher so is the school," ignores all other elements. Hence, whatever improves the teacher improves the school more efficiently and to a greater extent than the same end can be otherwise attained. So that Normal Schools, in some form, become the most efficient possible agency in improving education. And as the necessity of special training to the teacher is not, as I understand, a part of the present question, this point shall be passed without argument. We assume the necessity of such training, even if it is not proved by the suggestions just thrown out. The only question that remains is, whether this training shall be

furnished by the authority and at the expense of the State, or whether it shall be left to private enterprise to impart it.

By the authority and at the expense of the State, we say, by all means. First, because it is the duty of the State, having established free schools, to see that they accomplish the end for which they were instituted. Shall the State, with lavish hand, expend its millions for building school-houses and paying teachers, and shall it withhold the paltry thousands needed to make this large expenditure efficient? Is it democratic to compel the people to tax themselves so freely for the paying of teachers' wages, and is it undemocratic to take measures for making the article they get in exchange worth what is paid for it? Does not the authority to inaugurate and establish so important and costly an enterprise imply all the authority necessary for carrying it to a successful issue? Even the Constitution of the United States, so famous as an instrument bestowing only restricted powers, seems to recognize the principle for which we are contending, by an express declaration, that the national legislature shall possess all power necessary for carrying into execution the specially granted ones.

Is it thought that State agency is not demanded here, and that the necessity for good teachers will be supplied as the need of coats and houses is supplied? That the force of competition will urge private institutions forward to excellence in the preparation of teachers? That the whole matter had better be left to the operation of the law of demand and supply?

This, to a considerable degree, is undeniably true. Earnest and laborious men have sometimes clearly seen the public necessities in this respect, and with vast energy have sought by private enterprises to meet them. And such men and such efforts are ever to be held in honorable remembrance. In this way great good has been accomplished. But the course of institutions thus established has usually been temporary. It takes the glowing zeal of their self-sacrificing founders to keep the fires alive in them. In the hands of less enthusiastic or less far-seeing successors they have faded away. And this, because that in the adjustment of the social influences, there is no way of making such institutions self-sustaining. They always involve a sacrifice on the part of some one. There must be something thrown in to balance the forces, and that is commonly in the shape of extra labor and unpaid-for enthusiasm on the part of him who undertakes the enterprise. And this inequality must always subsist, as long as teachers, fledged and unfledged, continue poor.

Now it seems eminently proper that the State with its ample resources and powers should bear the burden of equalizing these forces—should make it possible to secure the best attainable results, without an unreasonable demand upon the time and energies of those who teach the incipient teachers.

But these are rare cases in which private institutions are able and willing fully and efficiently to do the work of educating teachers for the public schools. Usually it may be assumed that every private institution has a chief purpose of its own, with which the proper accomplishment of this work is incompatible. Taking a survey of these schools of all grades from those noble accumulations of the wealth and learning of centuries which dignify and illumine the older States of our Union, and which have been so powerful in protecting our liberties as well as advancing our civilization—down to the newest venture of the most peripatetic Yankee at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, taking a general survey of all these institutions, what do we find? Certainly no adequate provision for training teachers. Where is the college or seminary, or even the professorship, devoted to this purpose, and sufficiently endowed? Somewhere in the glorious future, we hope; certainly not in the active present. And this is not surprising. The educated merchant, in the enjoyment of his millions, remembers, with an active gratitude, the Alma Mater whose kindly care fostered his noblest manhood. The statesman, at the height of a brilliant power, is not forgetful of the fountain at which he drank in the wise and profound philosophy that secures his fame. Even the man of science may, through the admiration of an appreciating country, become the controller of princely subsidies. But the teacher of the public school—who shall endow on his account the place of his education? He may regard with the liveliest gratitude the schools and teachers of his early years, but surely not because the maxims they taught him have been coined into cash. Nor can the expression of his grateful feelings, as a general rule, take the form of legal tender. And as to the adventurer who relies upon his own enterprise and tact to maintain a new undertaking—is there any thing to lead him to take for his special patrons those who propose to teach? Not unless, in addition to tact and enterprise, he also possesses, in a high degree, the most persevering missionary spirit.

To be sure the time may come, and may God speed its coming, when, under the pressure of an enlightened public sentiment, all this may be changed—when rich men in their wills, and great men in their power, shall remember that in no way can they so effectually

earn the gratitude of their country and of posterity, as by contributing of their resources to the preparation of teachers for the millions of our children. Indeed, we perceive most cheering indications of what the good time coming will do for the cause, in the labors of the greatest naturalist of our country and time, who, for the mere sake of the good he can do, gives so freely of his time and of his scientific resources to the purpose of aiding teachers to open to their pupils some of the mysteries of the natural world. And when he returns from his present enterprise, by which a neighboring continent is to be laid under contribution to the scientific conqueror, every child in the land may doubtless share in the spoils of his honorable victory!

But this is an instance scarcely more conspicuous for its value than for its singularity, and the proposition still remains true that from the ordinary sources of culture the teacher derives little that is available in the way of professional training. The great want that thus exists must be made good by the State. No other power is at present both willing and able to do it. The people must recognize their own necessities, and decree the supplying of them. The State must understand that its own preservation and the happiness of its citizens depend upon the public schools, and that the value of these will be greatly increased by a proper training of those who are to direct them; and for this purpose, let one or more institutions be established by each member of the national Union.

And especially should this policy be earnestly pursued at the present time, when, by the result of our war, vast areas of territory and multitudes of human beings are at once thrown upon our hands, demanding of us the culture that is to lead them to a higher civilization. A demand is now making upon the teaching power of this nation vastly exceeding what has heretofore been met. Think for one moment of the millions of minds, enveloped in skins of all hues, not black alone—that must be lifted up into the light of American ideas before we have any true democracy in the South. What a toilsome lengthened labor it is to be for somebody to "fire the Southern heart" with that love of intellectual life, and that enthusiasm for universal liberty which are essential to a free community! What serene and trustful courage it will require—serene and trustful, because able to see the glorious success that is to come—what serene and trustful courage it will require to work for years and decades in overcoming the sleepiness induced by two hundred years of effectual nursing! There never was a time when the nation so much needed the very best and highest teaching, and so much

of it, as it does to-day. Our higher civilization is to be subjected to an unwonted strain. The question is to be practically solved, whether we can assimilate all this crude material that, in the event of our failure, will be sure to assimilate us? We are still in the jaws of the irrepressible conflict, and in the great moral struggle there is to be a glorious victory, or a defeat most ignoble and degrading—a victory that shall light up the future of our country and the world with an ineffable radiance, or a defeat that shall cast a gloom over the brightest human hopes. How often has it happened when a bloody war between two communities is finished, and the belligerents sit down side by side to engage in the work of life, that the conquered in battle becomes the conqueror—that they who were invincible in the shock of arms yield before the power of culture, or luxury, or intrigue, and are led at will by the very people over whom they lately triumphed. How gloriously might the Greek have exulted, notwithstanding the victories of Aemilius and Mummius, when the proudest Romans sat at his feet essaying a bungling imitation of Hellenic Art! How sweetly was the Roman himself revenged afterwards upon the irresistible barbarian, when he saw the same barbarian enervated by Roman luxury, circumvented by Roman intrigue, and trying to school his rude organs to the use of the Roman speech!

So here. Our victory in the war for the Union must be a double victory or it will be barren. There must be a conquest of ideas as well as of battalions. The schoolmaster must finish what the soldier has so well begun. Free schools must be planted wherever the flag of the republic floats. Culture must be as extended as the right of suffrage—and that is absolutely universal, except as it shall be limited by intelligence. Wherever a mind is found there must the culture be supplied.

And this can only be accomplished by an unprecedented expenditure of all the qualities that go to make up the good teacher. For this purpose we need a multiplication of the instrumentalities by which good teachers are prepared. Especially do we need to foster among those entering upon the employment that genuine love of their work and interest in it that inspire to the highest achievements. Teaching must be regarded by them as a noble profession. They must view it in its worthier connections. They must not dwell upon its drawbacks and disadvantages—upon the thousand and one petty annoyances that harass the teacher—but upon the glorious end to be achieved—upon the unequaled value of the mind, and upon the enduring dignity of every well-directed effort for its culture. And

we think that nowhere can such a spirit be so successfully fostered as in a Normal School where the great aim and end is, the study of the question, how and by what means the work of teaching can be made effective?

We say, then, most emphatically, that Normal Schools, with their distinctive characteristics, should be established and maintained in each State at public expense.

And what are these distinctive characteristics? Wherein and how does a Normal School differ from any other well-conducted institution, in which the same subjects in the main are taught?

First, we answer, it differs in its aim. Using, to a great extent, the same instruments as other schools, namely, treatises upon science and language, it nevertheless uses them for purposes very diverse. In an ordinary school, the treatise on arithmetic is put into the hands of the student in order that he may *learn arithmetic;* in the Normal School, the same book is used to enable him to learn *how to teach* arithmetic. In the ordinary school, the youth reads his Cicero with the purpose of learning the structure, vocabulary, and power of the Latin language; the normal student pores over the same author that he may adjust in his mind a method by which he may most successfully teach others these things. Both use the same materials, acquire, to some extent, the same knowledge, but aiming all the while at different ends. Of course it is clear that one of these objects must pre-suppose the accomplishment of the other. The proper work of the Normal School can not be performed unless the mastery of the subjects has first been obtained.

Because different men have to do with the same object, it does not follow that the sight or thought of it gives rise in their minds to the same associations. To the outward eye of the shipwright and sailor, the gallant ship, trim and taut, with canvas spread, and filled by the friendly breeze, is the same. To both she is an object of pride and admiration, but how different the scenes and duties of which she reminds the two! To one she recalls the ship-yard with all its belongings—the stocks, the unwrought materials, the weary mortising, sawing, hammering, bolt-driving, caulking, and paying. He sees her as she was in the process of combination, while as yet her symmetry was undeveloped, and her beauty of line and curve existed only in the brain of the master-builder. To the other, she is a reminder of winds and waves, of distant voyages and foreign climes, of lonely watches and beating storms, of the midnight upon the glassy ocean and under the star-decked heavens. To the builder, she is, in an important sense, an end; his chief concern with her

ceases when, for the first time, her sails filled, she glides, obedient to the helm, over the watery highway. To the mariner, she is a means, bearing him up amid the storm, protecting him against the dangers of the deep, gathering up for him the "wealth of Ormus and of Ind."

So with the subjects of study in school. To the ordinary student, arithmetic is associated, it may be, with severe efforts at mastering its principles; with perseverance and success, or irresolution and failure. But to him who is preparing to teach, it recalls the points most difficult of *explanation*, and the minds most difficult to reach. His constant question is, not "How can I master this principle or process?" but "How will this point seem to my pupils?" To one it is an end. His concern with it ceases when, obedient to his will, its principles come at call, and appear before his mind luminous and clear. To the other, it is a means to the training of mind. It is not enough for him that his eye can take in the whole field and scan the relation of the parts. He must see that, as an instrument, it does the work—accomplishes the result set for it. To him the study must culminate in an increase of intellectual and moral power somewhere. He must see, as the result of it all, a well-developed, symmetrical, human soul!

In these schools the whole animus of both teacher and pupil is this idea of future teaching. Every plan is made to conform to it. Every measure proposed is tried by this as a test. There is no other aim or purpose to claim any share of the mental energy of either. It is the Alpha and Omega of schemes of study and modes of thought.

And is this distinct and separate aim in the preparatory seminary of any value to the novice? Will he be likely, on account of this, to make a better teacher than he would without it—his training, in all other respects, being the same? In answer to this question we say, most emphatically, Yes! And in so saying we doubtless express the conviction of every educator who has given the subject much thought. May we not say that if every scrap of educational literature were to be blotted out; if Comenius were to be forgotten with all his works; if Roger Ascham were to fade out from the literary horizon; if Pestalozzi were to become as a myth; if the educational utterances of Socrates, Plato, and Quintilian were to be eliminated from the sun of human knowledge; if Horace Mann, with the thoughts and the inspiration he has left us, were to vanish from book and from memory; if all this were to happen, and if nothing were to be left the teacher and pupil in the Normal School

but their own thought and their unaided efforts, may we not even then say that these institutions, by the mere force of the fact that their aim is what it is, would be not only useful but necessary—ay, all the more necessary on account of these very circumstances? Shall we not, therefore, concede that the difference in aim between the normal and ordinary school makes one of the distinctive and essential characteristics of the former, and that this difference is of itself sufficient to establish its claim to separate support?

But thank God, the wise utterances of the past are still with us. Pestalozzi has not faded out. Horace Mann is commemorated not alone or chiefly in statue and monument, however honorable these may be to those who rear them. Literature preserves for us the results of ancient and modern thought and experience on the subject of education. And the Normal School has, therefore, for one of its distinctive characteristics, that it imparts instruction in the science of education and the art of teaching. Thoughtful men have observed the phenomena of the mind, juvenile and adult, have compared the results of their observations, and have given us the truths and principles evolved by their thinking. These we are able, to some extent, to present to our normal students, as helps in forming their own opinions, and constructing their own theories of education. And every year improves the material thus furnished. In our times many able minds are intensely laboring upon this problem of ascertaining and stating the principles of education. Books are continually issuing from the press setting them forth. Of course, in the multiplicity of publications, there has been some trash. In our eagerness we have plucked some immature fruit. The tree is young and has not yet, we are confident, reached its best bearing. But already some plump and lucious specimens have fallen into our baskets. And we know that more and finer is yet to come. In the meantime let us cherish the tree. Let the soil be tilled by the assiduous labor of every active teacher. Let it be watered by the generous showers of a beneficent legislation; and let it be warmed into lusty life and a glorious fruitage by the genial rays of an appreciative public sentiment!

It has been sometimes intimated that this pretended science of education is a myth—that the talk about it is of little account. It has been charged, perhaps not altogether generously, that its advocates and professors are more enthusiastic than wise—that they are either intentional deceivers of the public, or unwitting deceivers of themselves—that, in short, the whole matter is a sort of well-intentioned imposture. Now we are free to confess that some of the

talk aforesaid has been a trifle unsubstantial—that an occasional apostle has appeared with more zeal than knowledge—that some of the professors, it is barely possible, have chipped the shell a little prematurely. But it is not, I trust, necessary, at this late day, to assure you that there is here as noble a science as ever engaged the thought of man. There are immutable principles here, that ought to be studied and comprehended by every young person entering upon the work of teaching. There is, in the nature of things, a foundation for a profession of teachers. Compare the science of education with other sciences in this respect. Take the science of Medicine. Have we not well-defined, universally acknowledged, practically important principles as well in the Teachers' College as the College of Physicians? and as the science of medicine now is, with its various schools and numerous isms, have we not about as many of them that are universally acknowledged? Or take the clerical profession, including all the denominations considered respectable, and are there not as many useful and important points, upon which we teachers are all agreed, as there are among the ministers? In truth, the science of education is now, in some respects, in the most satisfactory condition. Its conclusions have not crystallized into such rigid forms that there is no room for further discussion. Its principles are sufficiently well-established to serve as guides to the thoughtful inquirer, but not sufficiently limited to cramp his faculties or repress his thought.

Here then we have the second distinctive characteristic of the Normal School—that it instructs its pupils in the Science of Education and Art of Teaching.

Another essential requisite in a Normal School is, that it gives its pupils an opportunity of some kind for practice in teaching, under the supervision and subject to the criticism of experienced and skillful instructors. This is accomplished in various ways; by exercises in conducting the regular classes of the Normal School; by classes of normal pupils assuming for the time the character of children, and receiving instruction and answering questions as they think children would; and by a separate school of children in which the novice is intrusted with the charge of a class, either permanently or for a stated period, as a week or two weeks, as the case may be. There seem to be different opinions as to which of these is the best and most efficient method. The Model or Experimental School has been objected to because it interferes with the daily drill of the normal student in his classes, and also because the children taught by these students are supposed not to be so well taught as

they would be by instructors of more experience. But I think both these evils may be entirely avoided—the first, by a proper distribution of the time for study and for teaching, and the second, by an adequate supervision of the pupil-teachers, added to the responsibility imposed upon them by continuing the same class, under the same teacher, during a term of school, and subjecting it at the close of that term to such an examination as is usual in the case of regular teachers. The school for practice is unquestionably essential to the complete idea of a Normal School. When the young practitioner is dealing with children, he encounters the reality of his work. The actual difficulties of his employment are before him. There is no make-believe. He is never in doubt as to whether his methods are such as to instruct and interest children, for the children are there, and he can see for himself, and all others can do the same, whether they are instructed and interested, or not. Every question he asks, every suggestion he makes, is tested on the spot by the proper and natural test. But it is said that more skill is necessary to teach a class of adults personating children, than to teach an equal number of actual little ones, and that, therefore, this practice is of more value than the other. This statement may be true in respect to the difficulty, and if we knew that every additional degree of difficulty adds strength to the mind overcoming it, we might allow that higher results might be gained in this way than by the other. But this assumption is not true. It is more difficult to calculate an eclipse than to ascertain the value of ten pounds of sugar at twenty cents a pound, and what a vast increase of mental strength is acquired in passing from the latter to the former. But it is also more difficult to shoot pigeons with a sixty-four pounder than with a common fowling-piece, and most difficult of all to see any advantage that is likely to come from the attempt. Increasing the difficulty of an undertaking does not necessarily improve its effect. Unnatural methods of accomplishing results are difficult, and certainly not to be commended on that or any other account.

Again we mention as a distinctive characteristic of Normal Schools that they beget an *esprit du corps*, and kindle a glowing enthusiasm among their pupils. They tend to exalt the business of teaching. They show it up in its nobler instead of its meaner colors. By infusing an element of philosophy into the very work of instruction, they dignify every step of it. Under this influence the work of primary instruction becomes the worthiest of the whole task, because, considered with respect to the child's wants, it is the most important. It takes profounder insight into the child's nature

to lay aright the foundations of his culture in the primary school, than to help him at any other stage of his progress, because the primary teacher must see the end from the very beginning. His plans for the future must embrace the child's entire career. No partial view of the field is sufficient. This the Normal School brings into view and insists upon. Admit this truth and you at once exalt the work of elementary instruction into a dignified science, into something worth the study of any mind. Make the excellence of teaching to depend upon *what* you teach, and there is little to arouse the enthusiasm of some of our number, for a knowledge of the alphabet and abs can hardly be considered as bestowing much dignity on one.

Normal Schools, then, should be reëstablished and maintained by State authority. For this we urge the consideration that they are needed to promote the success of the common schools, and that they are eminently adapted to this purpose. This adaptation we have tried to prove from the distinguishing characteristics of these institutions. These characteristics are that they have in view the special object of preparing teachers, that this is their entire aim and end; that they foster a professional spirit and generate professional enthusiasm; that they give instruction in the science and art of teaching; and that just now, as our country is situated, they are specially needed, in order to extend the influence of free schools all over the region lately blasted by slavery. Any one of these characteristics is a sufficient vindication of these institutions. Taken together, they form an argument in behalf of normal schools irresistable and imposing. May these institutions continue to grow in usefulness and in public favor until they have achieved results worthy of the confidence they solicit.

VIII. EDUCATION AS AN ELEMENT IN RECONSTRUCTION.

BY J. P. WICKERSHAM,

Principal of the Pennsylvania State Normal School at Millersville.

THANKS to our army and navy, the commanding officers and the gallant soldiers, the great Rebellion is crushed, the right has triumphed, liberty is saved. For four long, weary years, the nation struggled to preserve its existence, to preserve the form of government our forefathers established. At times the contest seemed doubtful; we had our days of darkness and humiliation; but at last the clouds broke away, and the beautiful sunlight shone bright upon a disinthralled and redeemed country. Let a grateful people shower blessings upon its surviving defenders, and drop tears of sorrow upon the graves of those who fell fighting in the glorious cause of Liberty and Union!

The war is ended, but the heavy task of reconstruction remains. The whole South is in a state of demoralization. Her fields lie waste and desolated. Her industry is paralyzed. Her system of labor is broken up. Starvation and wretchedness stare her in the face. She has lost fearfully in men, in money, in property, in power, in moral stamina. The war indeed is ended, but the Union is not restored. The surgeon has performed a successful operation; but the patient lies faint and bleeding, almost dead. The Southern leaders are conquered, but we deceive ourselves if we think they are now ready to become good and loyal citizens. The poor whites are in general more debased, and less disposed to labor, than before the war. In many sections they beg, in some they rob, in a few they work; but in all there is a sad state of anarchy and much suffering. The slaves are free, but they have not yet learned to conduct themselves as freemen. Many of them seem to think they are to be fed and cared for without any exertion of their own. They crowd into cities, and towns, and military stations, where, in consequence of their want of attention to the laws of health, they are dying in large numbers.

"After the combatant," says De Tocqueville, "comes the legislator; the one has pulled down, the other builds up; each has his

office." Never before in any country was there greater need of wise statesmanship than in ours to-day. Grant with his bayonets and his cannon has indeed pulled down: who will build up? and how? The great problem now before the American people is to restore healthy life to the palsied body of the South; to reconstruct not a mechanical but an organic Union—a Union cemented with love—a Union that will render safe forever the free institutions of our fathers.

While the Chief Executive of the nation and his cabinet meditate upon these questions, while statesmen deal with them from their point of view, it becomes us, as the educators of the country, to give them attentive consideration; and, if we have light, to set it upon a candlestick, that it may not be hid. Motives of this kind have prompted the selection of the theme which forms the subject of this paper: *Education as an Element in the Reconstruction of the Union.*

A great general may organize victory. God will help those who help themselves. His interposition marks every event in the history of the great Rebellion which has just been put down; but, had the people not risen in their might, had no healthy reaction taken place against the disease that threatened death to the nation, had not great captains skillfully marshaled our hosts for battle, his hands might have been stayed, and the name of the United States of America might have been added to the long list of empires that have fallen. So, now, a vast work remains to be accomplished, and the means of accomplishing it must be organized and intelligently applied. Order in the South must be made to take the place of anarchy; industry, the place of idleness; knowledge, the place of ignorance; loyalty, the place of treason. The people must be led to love free institutions in appreciating the blessings which flow from them. But what a task! Never before in the history of the world did motives so strong impel a nation to lift a part of its population up from darkness to light, from slavery to freedom. The safety of our democratic form of government depends upon it; the Union can never be restored, except in name, without it.

The United States, strictly speaking, never had a republican form of goverment. Our forefathers intended to found a republic, but they tolerated an institution which was incompatible with republicanism. A republic, in the sense of a government of the people, can not permit the holding of slaves; and, just so far as it does so, it departs from the republican principle, and approximates an aristocracy or a monarchy. A democracy that allows the enslavement of its own people destroys itself. The Southern States constituted

a virtual oligarchy at the time of the adoption of the Federal Constitution; and, from that time until the breaking out of the Rebellion, both in their social arrangements and their governmental policy, the tendency was to make that oligarchy more marked. The poor became poorer; the rich, richer. The great landed proprietors constantly increased their lands, and the small landed proprietors sold theirs, and either sought homes in the free States or became virtual vassals of the slaveholding lords. Slavery, at first barely tolerated as a necessary evil, to be got rid of as speedily as possible, came, at last, to be considered as a divinely ordained institution, constituting the corner-stone of the Government. The sentiment of Thomas Jefferson respecting slavery was the prevailing sentiment in the South in 1800, while the sentiment of John C. Calhoun was the prevailing sentiment in 1860. But since this wonderful change of opinion had been produced by the basest influences incident to human nature, in the course of events, at the South, as elsewhere, the wicked were made to serve the cause of justice and truth. The friends of slavery have destroyed it; a proud aristocracy, maintained by the unrequited toil of their bondsmen, have undermined their own power; and now opens the golden opportunity of making our Government truly representative, truly democratic; and it must be improved in the interest of republicanism and liberty. Kings and potentates have ruled long enough; now let the people rule. Wherever our flag floats, there the people—the whole people—at the earliest practicable moment, must be allowed equal civil rights; or, in the language of the lamented Lincoln, "The weight must be lifted from the shoulders of all men, and all must have an equal chance."

To make permanent our Union in the future, we must remove the cause of our national troubles in the past. Let us briefly search for it.

That cause can not be found in any distinctions of rank or character existing among the original settlers of the country.

There were differences among the original settlers of the country —differences of nationality, of education, of religion, of rank. The reckless, high-born adventurers of Virginia and the Carolinas were quite unlike the conscientious Quakers of Pennsylvania, or the Bible-loving Puritans of New England. But these differences did not prevent a cordial union during the Revolution; they can scarcely be traced in the proceedings of the convention that framed the Constitution; nor do they seem to have disturbed the general good feeling of society, or the working of the governmental machinery, for some time after the adoption of the Constitution. The effect of republican

institutions must be to obliterate distinctions of rank; and this was their effect in this country, until their legitimate operation was interfered with by the influence of a powerful, social element, which, in its nature, is antagonistic to republicanism. An aristocracy can not be maintained without insignia of rank, titles of nobility, and special privileges; but while all these are discountenanced or forbidden in a republic, they, or something equivalent to them, necessarily grow out of a system of slavery. At the time of the Revolution, there were distinctions of rank in all the colonies; but these quickly disappeared wherever slavery did not exist, or wherever it was abolished. That a system of slavery was in accordance with the inclinations, and congenial to the tastes, of the old aristocracy of the South, may be admitted; but had slavery been abolished there, as it was in the Northern States, under the influence of universal education and universal suffrage, many of the men most influential in bringing about the great war through which we have just passed would have been peaceful farmers and honest mechanics, desiring nothing that might not be obtained under the beneficent Government against which they revolted.

Nor can that cause be found in any clashing of industrial interests. The Southern States have been mainly engaged in agricultural pursuits; the Northern, in commercial and manufacturing, as well as agricultural. But this difference of pursuits, far from being a cause of antagonism between the two sections, has always been, when well understood, a bond of union. The North could not well dispense with Southern cotton and rice; and the South could not more conveniently dispense with Northern shipping, and the fruits of Northern mechanical skill; and, most probably, the experiment of secession would have been attempted many years earlier than it was, if it had not been for this mutual dependence.

I do not overlook the fact of South Carolina nullification. The alledged cause of dissatisfaction then was the tariff. To its operation were attributed results which in reality it had little to do in producing; and its repeal, or the modification to which it was subjected, left the two sections in just the same relative position as before; the North, with its enterprise and its free labor, still maintaining its supremacy in wealth, prosperity, and importance. The South, entirely mistaken in the results expected to flow from the adoption of its views respecting the tariff, soon found, as the far-seeing Jackson had predicted, a new cause of complaint in the position of the North respecting slavery. With their feet upon the necks of millions whom God had created with natural rights similar to their own, they could

not prosper; and, blinded by pride and self-interest to the true cause that impeded the prosperity of their section, they attributed the social evils under which they suffered to a want of protection to their pet system of slavery on the part of the General Government, or to a want of affection for it on the part of the non-slaveholding people of the country. Legitimately pursued, the industrial interests of the North and South do not clash, but blend kindly together, as the future will show.

Our national troubles are sometimes attributed to a conflict between the sovereignty of the nation and the sovereignties of the different States. Our wisest statesmen, from the time of the formation of our Government to the present, have differed in opinion respecting the powers intrusted to the General Government and the powers retained by the several State Governments. From the first, there has been a party, generally small in numbers, who held the extreme doctrine, that, in case of conflict, the citizen's allegiance to his State Government is paramount to his allegiance to the National Government; or, in other words, that citizens owe allegiance to States, and States to the Nation; and that this latter form of allegiance is of such a character, that any State may withdraw from the Union at its own option. Was it this doctrine of State Rights that gave rise to our national troubles? A moment's reflection ought to enable any one to answer in the negative. It was not a crime to hold the doctrine of State Rights as a theory; those who held it only became traitors when they attempted to put it in practice. What induced the South to make the attempt to put it in practice? It was not done simply to test the doctrine. There must have been some strong motive to induce the Southern people to make such an attempt. That motive sprang from the interests of slavery, and of that state of society which slavery had created. Besides, where was this doctrine of State Rights most generally held? In the South. Who advocated it in Congress? Southerners. Who, for thirty years, diligently inculcated it in school, in the newspapers, from the pulpit, at public meetings? The Southern aristocracy. Who, at last, used it as a pretext to justify the most wicked rebellion the world ever saw? The South. And who uses it now to justify them in all the wrong they have done their country? Such men as Robert E. Lee and Jefferson Davis.

Thus the doctrine of State Rights, in its extreme form, is Southern doctrine, held in sincerity by none but slaveholders, and those identified with the interests of slaveholding. A product of slavery, it could not, therefore, have been the primary cause of our national

troubles: in itself it was harmless, and never would have given any trouble; but it was held by men who designed to use it as an instrument in the interest of slavery, and it was so used. With slavery out of the way, this doctrine would have been no more prevalent in the South than in the North, because none would have wanted to use it.

The main cause of our national troubles was the antagonism between free and slave labor. The conflict between these two systems of labor is indeed "irrepressible." Wherever brought together, one or the other must prevail; both can never coexist. To wise American statesmen, this antagonism was manifest from the first; and it was always felt by them that this country must, sometime, become "all slave or all free."

The disturbing element in all our social life, in our churches, and in our politics, ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, was slavery. Slavery was the upas tree that bore upon its poisoning branches State Rights, Nullification, Secession, Rebellion, and Assassination. Its influence accounts for the state of society in the South—a rich, proud, domineering, tyrannical aristocracy, and a class of vassal whites, ignorant, uncouth, superstitious, and sycophantic. It was slavery that raised its murderous hand against the life of the nation; but, in its mad efforts, it has killed, thank God! not the nation, but itself.

In view of the events which have occurred in this country since the adoption of its Constitution, and in the light of general history, we may indicate two great principles which must be observed in order to secure the permanency of a representative or republican form of government.

FIRST; *Equal civil rights should be enjoyed by all, subject only to the regulation of just general laws.*

SECOND; *The aim of the general laws regulating these civil rights should be to encourage preparation for citizenship.*

If republican institutions must necessarily conform to these principles, a system of slave labor is incompatible with such institutions. Equal civil rights can not be enjoyed by slaveholders and their slaves; and the laws that deprive the slaves of their civil rights, never recognize the duty of preparing them for citizenship. Certain restrictions upon the right of suffrage in a republic are proper; but all such restrictions as are imposed for other ends than that of public safety, all that are arbitrary and unjust, all that have reference to distinctions of class, are departures from the great fundamental principles upon which republics are based, and must sooner or later

jeopardize the interests of the States so governed. A republic that tolerates slavery can not remain a republic. All the so-called republics of ancient times verify this truth. If the rebels had triumphed in the recent struggle, this country would have assumed, first, an aristocratic form of government, and afterwards become a monarchy. They did not succeed; and we have a republic whose great mission it is to let the people rule, and to render them capable of ruling.

What has now been said sufficiently indicates the cause from which resulted our national troubles, culminating in the giant rebellion which has just been put down. That cause no longer exists to distract the country. Slavery is virtually abolished everywhere, and the problem of self-government is to be tried under more favorable auspices than heretofore. But many of the ills that this system of labor entailed upon the country remain. They stand prominently in the way of the reconstruction of the Union; and patriots and philanthropists, in all parts of the country, are devising plans for their removal. If the view we have taken of the cause of our national troubles, and of the functions of a democratic form of government, is correct, the work of reconstructing the Union can not safely take place without doing two things; First, *The granting of full civil rights to all those who have heretofore been denied them; and*, second, *the speedy preparation of all those who need it for the exercise of the rights of citizenship.* The first of these duties belongs to the statesman; the second can only be discharged by the educator. Let us confine ourselves to our own part of the work.

A system of slave labor necessarily creates three classes of persons: First, a class of rich slaveholders; second, a class of poor non-slaveholders; and, third, a class of slaves. In the South, these three classes have been well marked for years.

The strong hand of war has emancipated the slaves, and they are now freemen. This act has greatly changed the condition of the blacks; but it has left, as distinctly marked as before, the two classes of whites. Neither class, as it is at present, can be a safe element in the population of a republic. Many of the late slaveholders would prefer to-day a royalist from Europe, like Maximilian, to rule over them, to being ruled over by a man like Andrew Johnson, who has risen by his own native strength up from the ranks of the common people. The class of non-slaveholders are extremely ignorant, and ready now, as they have been heretofore, to become the tools of those cunning enough to deceive them, and strong enough to lead them. The freedmen have just been emancipated

troubles: in itself it was harmless, and never would have given any trouble; but it was held by men who designed to use it as an instrument in the interest of slavery, and it was so used. With slavery out of the way, this doctrine would have been no more prevalent in the South than in the North, because none would have wanted to use it.

The main cause of our national troubles was the antagonism between free and slave labor. The conflict between these two systems of labor is indeed "irrepressible." Wherever brought together, one or the other must prevail; both can never coexist. To wise American statesmen, this antagonism was manifest from the first; and it was always felt by them that this country must, sometime, become "all slave or all free."

The disturbing element in all our social life, in our churches, and in our politics, ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, was slavery. Slavery was the upas tree that bore upon its poisoning branches State Rights, Nullification, Secession, Rebellion, and Assassination. Its influence accounts for the state of society in the South—a rich, proud, domineering, tyrannical aristocracy, and a class of vassal whites, ignorant, uncouth, superstitious, and sycophantic. It was slavery that raised its murderous hand against the life of the nation; but, in its mad efforts, it has killed, thank God! not the nation, but itself.

In view of the events which have occurred in this country since the adoption of its Constitution, and in the light of general history, we may indicate two great principles which must be observed in order to secure the permanency of a representative or republican form of government.

FIRST; *Equal civil rights should be enjoyed by all, subject only to the regulation of just general laws.*

SECOND; *The aim of the general laws regulating these civil rights should be to encourage preparation for citizenship.*

If republican institutions must necessarily conform to these principles, a system of slave labor is incompatible with such institutions. Equal civil rights can not be enjoyed by slaveholders and their slaves; and the laws that deprive the slaves of their civil rights, never recognize the duty of preparing them for citizenship. Certain restrictions upon the right of suffrage in a republic are proper; but all such restrictions as are imposed for other ends than that of public safety, all that are arbitrary and unjust, all that have reference to distinctions of class, are departures from the great fundamental principles upon which republics are based, and must sooner or later

jeopardize the interests of the States so governed. A republic that tolerates slavery can not remain a republic. All the so-called republics of ancient times verify this truth. If the rebels had triumphed in the recent struggle, this country would have assumed, first, an aristocratic form of government, and afterwards become a monarchy. They did not succeed; and we have a republic whose great mission it is to let the people rule, and to render them capable of ruling.

What has now been said sufficiently indicates the cause from which resulted our national troubles, culminating in the giant rebellion which has just been put down. That cause no longer exists to distract the country. Slavery is virtually abolished everywhere, and the problem of self-government is to be tried under more favorable auspices than heretofore. But many of the ills that this system of labor entailed upon the country remain. They stand prominently in the way of the reconstruction of the Union; and patriots and philanthropists, in all parts of the country, are devising plans for their removal. If the view we have taken of the cause of our national troubles, and of the functions of a democratic form of government, is correct, the work of reconstructing the Union can not safely take place without doing two things; First, *The granting of full civil rights to all those who have heretofore been denied them; and*, second, *the speedy preparation of all those who need it for the exercise of the rights of citizenship.* The first of these duties belongs to the statesman; the second can only be discharged by the educator. Let us confine ourselves to our own part of the work.

A system of slave labor necessarily creates three classes of persons: First, a class of rich slaveholders; second, a class of poor non-slaveholders; and, third, a class of slaves. In the South, these three classes have been well marked for years.

The strong hand of war has emancipated the slaves, and they are now freemen. This act has greatly changed the condition of the blacks; but it has left, as distinctly marked as before, the two classes of whites. Neither class, as it is at present, can be a safe element in the population of a republic. Many of the late slaveholders would prefer to-day a royalist from Europe, like Maximilian, to rule over them, to being ruled over by a man like Andrew Johnson, who has risen by his own native strength up from the ranks of the common people. The class of non-slaveholders are extremely ignorant, and ready now, as they have been heretofore, to become the tools of those cunning enough to deceive them, and strong enough to lead them. The freedmen have just been emancipated

troubles: in itself it was harmless, and never would have given any trouble; but it was held by men who designed to use it as an instrument in the interest of slavery, and it was so used. With slavery out of the way, this doctrine would have been no more prevalent in the South than in the North, because none would have wanted to use it.

The main cause of our national troubles was the antagonism between free and slave labor. The conflict between these two systems of labor is indeed "irrepressible." Wherever brought together, one or the other must prevail; both can never coexist. To wise American statesmen, this antagonism was manifest from the first; and it was always felt by them that this country must, sometime, become "all slave or all free."

The disturbing element in all our social life, in our churches, and in our politics, ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, was slavery. Slavery was the upas tree that bore upon its poisoning branches State Rights, Nullification, Secession, Rebellion, and Assassination. Its influence accounts for the state of society in the South—a rich, proud, domineering, tyrannical aristocracy, and a class of vassal whites, ignorant, uncouth, superstitious, and sycophantic. It was slavery that raised its murderous hand against the life of the nation; but, in its mad efforts, it has killed, thank God! not the nation, but itself.

In view of the events which have occurred in this country since the adoption of its Constitution, and in the light of general history, we may indicate two great principles which must be observed in order to secure the permanency of a representative or republican form of government.

FIRST; *Equal civil rights should be enjoyed by all, subject only to the regulation of just general laws.*

SECOND; *The aim of the general laws regulating these civil rights should be to encourage preparation for citizenship.*

If republican institutions must necessarily conform to these principles, a system of slave labor is incompatible with such institutions. Equal civil rights can not be enjoyed by slaveholders and their slaves; and the laws that deprive the slaves of their civil rights, never recognize the duty of preparing them for citizenship. Certain restrictions upon the right of suffrage in a republic are proper; but all such restrictions as are imposed for other ends than that of public safety, all that are arbitrary and unjust, all that have reference to distinctions of class, are departures from the great fundamental principles upon which republics are based, and must sooner or later

jeopardize the interests of the States so governed. A republic that tolerates slavery can not remain a republic. All the so-called republics of ancient times verify this truth. If the rebels had triumphed in the recent struggle, this country would have assumed, first, an aristocratic form of government, and afterwards become a monarchy. They did not succeed; and we have a republic whose great mission it is to let the people rule, and to render them capable of ruling.

What has now been said sufficiently indicates the cause from which resulted our national troubles, culminating in the giant rebellion which has just been put down. That cause no longer exists to distract the country. Slavery is virtually abolished everywhere, and the problem of self-government is to be tried under more favorable auspices than heretofore. But many of the ills that this system of labor entailed upon the country remain. They stand prominently in the way of the reconstruction of the Union; and patriots and philanthropists, in all parts of the country, are devising plans for their removal. If the view we have taken of the cause of our national troubles, and of the functions of a democratic form of government, is correct, the work of reconstructing the Union can not safely take place without doing two things; First, *The granting of full civil rights to all those who have heretofore been denied them; and*, second, *the speedy preparation of all those who need it for the exercise of the rights of citizenship.* The first of these duties belongs to the statesman; the second can only be discharged by the educator. Let us confine ourselves to our own part of the work.

A system of slave labor necessarily creates three classes of persons: First, a class of rich slaveholders; second, a class of poor non-slaveholders; and, third, a class of slaves. In the South, these three classes have been well marked for years.

The strong hand of war has emancipated the slaves, and they are now freemen. This act has greatly changed the condition of the blacks; but it has left, as distinctly marked as before, the two classes of whites. Neither class, as it is at present, can be a safe element in the population of a republic. Many of the late slaveholders would prefer to-day a royalist from Europe, like Maximilian, to rule over them, to being ruled over by a man like Andrew Johnson, who has risen by his own native strength up from the ranks of the common people. The class of non-slaveholders are extremely ignorant, and ready now, as they have been heretofore, to become the tools of those cunning enough to deceive them, and strong enough to lead them. The freedmen have just been emancipated

from a bondage of more than two hundred years; and it is nothing to their discredit that they are badly prepared to assume at once all the responsibilities of citizens in a free country. To reconstruct the Union upon a firm basis, all that is unfriendly to it, or that stands in the way of its success, must be removed; the hostile elements in the South must be reconciled, and the population of the whole country must be made homogeneous in interest and sympathy. Of many one must be made. And the great question for us is, What can education accomplish as an agency in bringing about such a desirable result?

What can education do for the late slaveholders? The great majority of those who formerly held slaves are now just what they were before and during the war; and I am extremely doubtful whether there are any means by which they can be made, as a class, good and loyal citizens. If any are thus disposed, I would treat them most generously; but events seem to show that nearly all are at heart still opposed to free governments, and to the crowning excellencies of free governments—free men, free thought, free speech, and free schools. If pardoned, and permitted to retain their property and the privileges of citizens, they will soon attempt to regain their lost power in the State and National Governments, and to revive the aristocratic forms of Southern society. If pardoned, but not permitted to retain their property, or the privileges of citizens, a few may quietly submit to what they will consider their hard condition; some will leave the country—the more the better—while others will remain, to trouble every community in which they live with their ill-concealed treason. They have been already sadly miseducated, and they would scornfully reject all proffers of education at our hands. They are the thorns around which, and in spite of which, the wounds of the body politic must heal. We must treat them as Western farmers do the stumps in their clearings: work around them, and let them rot out. Many of the men who were instrumental in stirring up the Rebellion, and who guided its counsels and its arms, have perished by the sword; a few of those who survive, I trust, are to atone for their crimes upon the scaffold; and the rest—I speak it in the light of philosophy, and not with any feeling of exultation or revenge—are, as a class, to die out, because the climate of the United States of America has become unhealthy for them.

What can education do for the non-slaveholding whites of the South? Among this class there are some intelligent men; but the great majority are deplorably ignorant—more ignorant, if my

observations are correct, than the slaves themselves. They were described by travelers in the South, before the war, not only as ignorant, but as idle and debased. Those who have seen much of the rebel armies or of the rebel prisoners during the war, can well believe that these accounts are no exaggerations. At Point Lookout, only about one out of twenty of the rebel prisoners could read and write; and these prisoners were equally intelligent with those confined elsewhere.

It was this ignorance that enabled the rebel leaders to create a prejudice in the minds of this class of persons against the North, and to induce them to enlist in their armies. Their true interests were against the slaveholders, and with the laboring masses of the North; and where these interests were understood, they remained loyal—remained loyal, in many cases, at the sacrifice of liberty, property, and life itself. President Johnson, than whom no man is better qualified to speak, says, in his Fourth of July Gettysburg letter, "In your joy to-morrow, I trust you will not forget the thousands of whites, as well as blacks, whom the war has emancipated, who will hail this Fourth of July with a delight which no previous anniversary of the Declaration of Independence ever gave them. Controlled so long by ambitious, selfish leaders, who used them for their own unworthy ends, they are now free to serve and cherish the Government against whose life they in their blindness struck. I am greatly mistaken if, in the States lately in rebellion, we do not henceforward have such an exhibition of loyalty and patriotism as was never seen or felt there before." The President's prediction will be realized; but it will be realized only when the class of persons to whom he alludes shall be no longer blind to their own interests, and to the selfish purposes of those who have hitherto misled them. As long as they are ignorant, they will remain the tools of political demagogues, and therefore be incapable of self-government. They must be educated; the duty is imperative. No State that passed an act of secession should be allowed to take its former place in the Union without having first incorporated into its Constitution a provision for the establishment of a free school system; and I trust a petition will emanate from this body, asking the President to recommend this policy in his forth-coming annual message, and that like petitions will be sent to Congress. Our national authorities are bound by the Constitution to secure to each State a republican form of government; and reason and experience both show that a republican form of government can not long exist without providing a system of free schools. A republic must make

education universal among its people. Ignorant voters endanger liberty. With free schools in the South, there could have been no rebellion; and free schools now must render impossible rebellion in the future. In one of his speeches, sometime ago, Wendell Phillips said, that "behind every one of Grant's cannon there should be placed a school-house;" but now, if our rulers are wise, since they are ordering the cannon to the rear, they will make haste to order school-houses to the front. Let there be no delay; for, mark it well, the contest in which the two sections of this country have been engaged is not yet ended. Instead of a war with muskets and cannon, we are to have a war of cunning and diplomacy. Treason has failed; but there are traitors still who will use all their power to prevent the carrying out of the beneficent purposes of the Government toward the common people of the South. There are thousands of slaveholders in the South who yet expect, by means of the control they have exercised over the poor whites among them, and the deep-rooted prejudices which still prevail against Northern people and Northern institutions, to legislate slavery back into existence; to annul the confiscation laws; and even to cause the United States Government either to repudiate its own debt, or to assume the debt of the Confederacy. Educate the whole people of the South, and these machinations will all prove abortive, the rule of the haughty slave lord will pass away, and a great step will be taken toward making homogeneous our social as well as our political institutions throughout the nation.

What can education do for the freedmen? Four millions of human beings have just been emancipated in the South. They are now without property, and without that knowledge, and those habits of self-direction and self-reliance, which are necessary to secure them the comforts of life, much more an honorable place in society. They are ignorant, simple-hearted, and superstitious. They are overjoyed at their deliverance from slavery, but do not yet begin to realize the responsibilities of freemen, living to-day with little thought of to-morrow.

How fondly these poor people, during their long night of bondage, seem to have cherished the hope of sometime being free! They every where hailed our soldiers as deliverers, blessed them, prayed for them, thanked God for their coming. They braved all kinds of dangers to come within our lines, and marched for days and weeks with our armies, carrying such effects as they could hastily seize, and their little ones. There is deep meaning in the flowers they strewed in the path of Garrison, as he walked amid the

ruins of Charleston, and the hearty, soul-stirring welcome they gave the good President, Father Abraham, in the streets of Richmond a few days after its capture. Well may the confession now be forced from the lips of slaveholders—"We counted upon slavery as an element of strength, but found it an element of weakness."

The slaves are free; but freedom does not in itself bring them homes, employment, the comforts of life, knowledge, the enjoyment of the rights of citizenship. It still depends upon the North—upon us—whether the freedmen are to survive the "struggle for life" which they must now confront, or whether, like the native red men, they are to perish. Their present situation is a sad one. Notwithstanding what has been done for them, hundreds of thousands are now collected about the various military stations of the South, living in huts or cabins of their own construction, with little work, and few to give advice, rapidly contracting vicious habits, and rapidly dying from inability to support life in their new condition. Never had a nation such a task before it! God has permitted these people to be among us; will we let them perish? or will we make a gigantic effort to lift them up to manhood, and thus complement the boon of liberty we have already given them? It was a grand effort to strike down a wicked rebellion; it will be a grander one to break every yoke that oppressed the slave; to set him on his feet; to make him a man; to grant him an equal chance of success in life; to constitute him in due time a citizen, with all the rights and immunities of a citizen. General Grant has evinced consummate skill in the management of our armies; it requires even greater skill than his to undo the heavy burdens which still bear down these four millions of emancipated slaves; to overcome the bitter prejudice against them; to open up to them the pathway to that manhood God designed them to attain. To set the slaves free will be a doubtful blessing to them, if we do no more. American society has little patience with the weak and the thriftless. In the rough jostle of business, every man is expected to care for himself. After two centuries of bondage, can we expect the freedmen to possess the high intellectual and moral qualities which fit them to compete at once on equal terms with those who are educated, and who have been long accustomed to depend upon themselves? For one, I do not; and the benevolence of this country must in full measure extend a helping hand to the colored man, or he will perish, and God will hold us accountable for the crime. Great evils have afflicted this country because we would not let this people go; and now, if we follow them with cruel prejudice, if we deny them their rights, if we keep

education universal among its people. Ignorant voters endanger liberty. With free schools in the South, there could have been no rebellion; and free schools now must render impossible rebellion in the future. In one of his speeches, sometime ago, Wendell Phillips said, that "behind every one of Grant's cannon there should be placed a school-house;" but now, if our rulers are wise, since they are ordering the cannon to the rear, they will make haste to order school-houses to the front. Let there be no delay; for, mark it well, the contest in which the two sections of this country have been engaged is not yet ended. Instead of a war with muskets and cannon, we are to have a war of cunning and diplomacy. Treason has failed; but there are traitors still who will use all their power to prevent the carrying out of the beneficent purposes of the Government toward the common people of the South. There are thousands of slaveholders in the South who yet expect, by means of the control they have exercised over the poor whites among them, and the deep-rooted prejudices which still prevail against Northern people and Northern institutions, to legislate slavery back into existence; to annul the confiscation laws; and even to cause the United States Government either to repudiate its own debt, or to assume the debt of the Confederacy. Educate the whole people of the South, and these machinations will all prove abortive, the rule of the haughty slave lord will pass away, and a great step will be taken toward making homogeneous our social as well as our political institutions throughout the nation.

What can education do for the freedmen? Four millions of human beings have just been emancipated in the South. They are now without property, and without that knowledge, and those habits of self-direction and self-reliance, which are necessary to secure them the comforts of life, much more an honorable place in society. They are ignorant, simple-hearted, and superstitious. They are overjoyed at their deliverance from slavery, but do not yet begin to realize the responsibilities of freemen, living to-day with little thought of to-morrow.

How fondly these poor people, during their long night of bondage, seem to have cherished the hope of sometime being free! They every where hailed our soldiers as deliverers, blessed them, prayed for them, thanked God for their coming. They braved all kinds of dangers to come within our lines, and marched for days and weeks with our armies, carrying such effects as they could hastily seize, and their little ones. There is deep meaning in the flowers they strewed in the path of Garrison, as he walked amid the

ruins of Charleston, and the hearty, soul-stirring welcome they gave the good President, Father Abraham, in the streets of Richmond a few days after its capture. Well may the confession now be forced from the lips of slaveholders—"We counted upon slavery as an element of strength, but found it an element of weakness."

The slaves are free; but freedom does not in itself bring them homes, employment, the comforts of life, knowledge, the enjoyment of the rights of citizenship. It still depends upon the North—upon us—whether the freedmen are to survive the "struggle for life" which they must now confront, or whether, like the native red men, they are to perish. Their present situation is a sad one. Notwithstanding what has been done for them, hundreds of thousands are now collected about the various military stations of the South, living in huts or cabins of their own construction, with little work, and few to give advice, rapidly contracting vicious habits, and rapidly dying from inability to support life in their new condition. Never had a nation such a task before it! God has permitted these people to be among us; will we let them perish? or will we make a gigantic effort to lift them up to manhood, and thus complement the boon of liberty we have already given them? It was a grand effort to strike down a wicked rebellion; it will be a grander one to break every yoke that oppressed the slave; to set him on his feet; to make him a man; to grant him an equal chance of success in life; to constitute him in due time a citizen, with all the rights and immunities of a citizen. General Grant has evinced consummate skill in the management of our armies; it requires even greater skill than his to undo the heavy burdens which still bear down these four millions of emancipated slaves; to overcome the bitter prejudice against them; to open up to them the pathway to that manhood God designed them to attain. To set the slaves free will be a doubtful blessing to them, if we do no more. American society has little patience with the weak and the thriftless. In the rough jostle of business, every man is expected to care for himself. After two centuries of bondage, can we expect the freedmen to possess the high intellectual and moral qualities which fit them to compete at once on equal terms with those who are educated, and who have been long accustomed to depend upon themselves? For one, I do not; and the benevolence of this country must in full measure extend a helping hand to the colored man, or he will perish, and God will hold us accountable for the crime. Great evils have afflicted this country because we would not let this people go; and now, if we follow them with cruel prejudice, if we deny them their rights, if we keep

them in ignorance, if we crowd them into employments which yield the least compensation, it requires no prophet to predict that God will smite this nation more heavily than heretofore, if he does not destroy it as he did Pharaoh and his host in a Red Sea of blood. Let good men make haste to instruct and care for these new-born children of the Nation. Let teachers and missionaries be sent to them. Let State and church and neighborhood unite in a grand effort to save them from destruction, and give them something like a fair start in the race of life.

We all know that the freedmen must be educated. We all know that the education they need is not merely to read and write, but it is such an education as will fit them for their new condition as freemen and citizens. We all know, too, that a system by which they can be educated must be general and systematic; that to educate four millions of people scattered over nine hundred thousand square miles of territory, even in the rudiments of learning, will require an army of superintendents and teachers, and complicated educational machinery. The various Freedmen's Associations have relieved much suffering and accomplished much good; but their efforts are necessarily confined to certain localities, and greatly wanting in unity of plan and method. No man appreciates more highly than I do the Christian benevolence of this country, but it will prove entirely inadequate to the great work of educating the freedmen; this must be done by the National Government, or by the various State Governments, or by both. The law of Congress providing for the establishment of a Freedmen's Bureau, while it authorizes the appointment of commissioners, superintendents, and agents, to look after the interests of the freedmen, does not appropriate money for their education. Perhaps the President and Secretary of War may find a military necessity for making such appropriation; and, while the present condition of things continues, I hope they may.

With the way open, I believe that the best and most economical mode of educating the freedmen is to prepare teachers from among themselves, and thus enable them to teach one another.

Among the emancipated slaves, there are bright minds already possessing some knowledge, and eager for more; natural leaders, God-appointed, like Moses, to introduce this oppressed people to the promised land of knowledge and liberty. These I would seek out; put them into Normal Schools adapted to the purpose; train them for teachers and missionaries among their own people; and, when prepared, send them forth to do their allotted work. They would be willing to live among their pupils; they would understand their

wants and enjoy their sympathy; and they could do vastly more for them than white teachers, though better qualified. For years there will be few schoolhouses for the accomodation of the freedmen, exept in cities and towns. These colored teachers should instruct the people wherever they could find them, adults as well as children, on the plantations, in camps, or cabins, or meeting-houses. This work of teaching one another began as soon as the slaves were free, and the plan I propose is one suggested by this circumstance. A correspondent of the "New York Herald," writing from the far South, says, "I have frequently seen the colored people teaching each other as they sat by the roadside." Other observers tell us that they have seen colored soldiers studying and reciting their lessons in the trenches, while shot and shell whistled over them; that they have heard them naming over letters and words to one another at midnight in their camps; and that the most prized treasure in their knapsacks was a spelling-book. A people so eager to learn must be taught; and it will be found the best policy to teach them by employing mainly teachers of their own race.

The inauguration of a system of instruction for the freedmen is a noble work, and no man in America at this time has the same opportunity of doing good as Major Gen. O. O. Howard, Commissioner of the Freedmen. Let us rejoice that the work he is appointed to do is in good hands, for Gen. Howard is a Christian. He should receive encouragement and strength from the educational men of the country; and it seems to me proper that this body should proffer it by the appointment of a committee to wait upon him.

The colored people deserve semething at the hands of this nation. They were brought here without their consent; for two hundred years they have labored among us, increasing the wealth of the nation; and, when a gigantic rebellion threatened to overthrow the government, they remained loyal, furnishing, wherever they could, valuable information to our commanding officers, aiding many of our soldiers in making their escape from rebel prisons, proving themselves our friends in a thousand ways, and at last taking up arms, and fighting nobly in defense of the Union. That they fought well is sufficiently attested; and justice demands that they should have, at least, a chance to prove whether they may not be entitled to the inalienable rights of freemen,—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Besides, sooner or later, either by the National or by the State authorities, this people will be allowed the right of suffrage; and all wise men readily see that their education should be made a necessary condition of their enfranchisement.

them in ignorance, if we crowd them into employments which yield the least compensation, it requires no prophet to predict that God will smite this nation more heavily than heretofore, if he does not destroy it as he did Pharaoh and his host in a Red Sea of blood. Let good men make haste to instruct and care for these new-born children of the Nation. Let teachers and missionaries be sent to them. Let State and church and neighborhood unite in a grand effort to save them from destruction, and give them something like a fair start in the race of life.

We all know that the freedmen must be educated. We all know that the education they need is not merely to read and write, but it is such an education as will fit them for their new condition as freemen and citizens. We all know, too, that a system by which they can be educated must be general and systematic; that to educate four millions of people scattered over nine hundred thousand square miles of territory, even in the rudiments of learning, will require an army of superintendents and teachers, and complicated educational machinery. The various Freedmen's Associations have relieved much suffering and accomplished much good; but their efforts are necessarily confined to certain localities, and greatly wanting in unity of plan and method. No man appreciates more highly than I do the Christian benevolence of this country, but it will prove entirely inadequate to the great work of educating the freedmen; this must be done by the National Government, or by the various State Governments, or by both. The law of Congress providing for the establishment of a Freedmen's Bureau, while it authorizes the appointment of commissioners, superintendents, and agents, to look after the interests of the freedmen, does not appropriate money for their education. Perhaps the President and Secretary of War may find a military necessity for making such appropriation; and, while the present condition of things continues, I hope they may.

With the way open, I believe that the best and most economical mode of educating the freedmen is to prepare teachers from among themselves, and thus enable them to teach one another.

Among the emancipated slaves, there are bright minds already possessing some knowledge, and eager for more; natural leaders, God-appointed, like Moses, to introduce this oppressed people to the promised land of knowledge and liberty. These I would seek out; put them into Normal Schools adapted to the purpose; train them for teachers and missionaries among their own people; and, when prepared, send them forth to do their allotted work. They would be willing to live among their pupils; they would understand their

wants and enjoy their sympathy; and they could do vastly more for them than white teachers, though better qualified. For years there will be few schoolhouses for the accomodation of the freedmen, except in cities and towns. These colored teachers should instruct the people wherever they could find them, adults as well as children, on the plantations, in camps, or cabins, or meeting-houses. This work of teaching one another began as soon as the slaves were free, and the plan I propose is one suggested by this circumstance. A correspondent of the "New York Herald," writing from the far South, says, "I have frequently seen the colored people teaching each other as they sat by the roadside." Other observers tell us that they have seen colored soldiers studying and reciting their lessons in the trenches, while shot and shell whistled over them; that they have heard them naming over letters and words to one another at midnight in their camps; and that the most prized treasure in their knapsacks was a spelling-book. A people so eager to learn must be taught; and it will be found the best policy to teach them by employing mainly teachers of their own race.

The inauguration of a system of instruction for the freedmen is a noble work, and no man in America at this time has the same opportunity of doing good as Major Gen. O. O. Howard, Commissioner of the Freedmen. Let us rejoice that the work he is appointed to do is in good hands, for Gen. Howard is a Christian. He should receive encouragement and strength from the educational men of the country; and it seems to me proper that this body should proffer it by the appointment of a committee to wait upon him.

The colored people deserve semething at the hands of this nation. They were brought here without their consent; for two hundred years they have labored among us, increasing the wealth of the nation; and, when a gigantic rebellion threatened to overthrow the government, they remained loyal, furnishing, wherever they could, valuable information to our commanding officers, aiding many of our soldiers in making their escape from rebel prisons, proving themselves our friends in a thousand ways, and at last taking up arms, and fighting nobly in defense of the Union. That they fought well is sufficiently attested; and justice demands that they should have, at least, a chance to prove whether they may not be entitled to the inalienable rights of freemen,—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Besides, sooner or later, either by the National or by the State authorities, this people will be allowed the right of suffrage; and all wise men readily see that their education should be made a necessary condition of their enfranchisement.

The soldier subdues, the legislator regulates, and the educator builds. The soldier is the hardy pioneer who cuts down the forests, the legislator lays out the farm, and the educator makes the harvest yield its fruitage.

In a republic, if all men vote, all men must be educated. A loaded musket in the hands of a crazy man in a crowd is not nearly so dangerous as a ballot in the hands of an ignorant man at an election. The thing of highest interest in a republic is its schools.

What this nation most needs to-day is the extension of a well-arranged system of free schools to all its parts. In the late rebellion, the line of free schools marked the line of loyalty to the Government. We must push that line to the Gulf. Free schools are needed not only as an element in the reconstruction of the Union, but as a means of preserving it when reconstructed. We must perfect our school systems at the North, and the teacher and his spelling-book must be made to follow the soldier and his musket at the South. Intelligence must be recognized as the basis of republicanism. Statesmen must come to give the matter of public instruction more attentive consideration. Departments organized to render efficient the work of education must be made to occupy a more prominent position at our State capitols and at Washington. The great duty that presses upon the patriot and the philanthropist of this country to-day is the education of the whole people of the nation, without regard to race or rank or color or position. When our youth all learn to read similar books, study similar lessons, submit to similar regulations in the schools, we shall become one people, possessing an organic nationality, and the Republic will be safe for all time.

Is not the condition of things such that we may begin to speak, with some hope of being listened to, of a national system of education? Few men thoroughly imbued with the spirit of our American systems of education will doubt the propriety of regulating by State laws all the educational agencies of the different States. It is almost agreed that the common schools, high schools, academies, and colleges of a State should be incorporated into a system, be subject in certain particulars to some central authority, and be made to subserve their several functions in harmony with one another. At a time when terrific war tested the sinews of this nation, it was found that a Government like ours could not always depend upon the several State governments for its soldiers or its money; and it seems to me that wise statemanship must before long discover that necessity now exists for the establishment of a depart-

ment of public instruction at Washington, the head of which shall encourage the adoption of systems of education in all the States, adapted to our form of government; and under proper congressional enactments, and with due regard to the rights of the several States, exercise some general control over those systems. A start in this direction has been made by the establishment of the Freedman's Bureau; and I think it is generally felt that an enlargement of its powers would promote the public good, and place our institutions upon a firmer basis. We want all educational powers still to emanate from the people; but what the people do must be regulated in township, county, State, and nation. We have school authorities now in township, county and State, but we want a national head; for the great lesson we have learned in the last four years is that the United States of America is a *nation*, and not a copartnership of States; and, as a nation, our Government ought not to release itself from all responsibility concerning education. There is no agency the Government can use, so well calculated to reconcile the diverse interests of the country, to unite its different parts, to make us one people, as a well-devised national system of education. Without this,—either administered by the States or the nation,—all else will prove abortive. Without it there may be reconstruction, but there can be no true union; there may be a mechanical cohesion of parts; but there can be no connection and co-working of individualities in a common body with a common life. Indeed, without a molding, organizing, consolidating, union-forming system of schools, extensive enough at least to impart the elements of knowledge to the whole people, a not distant future will see this nation standing like an old oak in the forest, with a number of its branches dead or dying, significant of the death that will speedily overtake the whole. A little pruning now, an effort to throw the strong vitality of the healthy parts into those that give evidence of decay, and the tree will slough off its dead matter, and grow with all its wonted vigor and luxuriousness.

American educators hold in their hands the destinies of this nation. Their task is not like that of the dashing soldier or the popular statesman at whom all the world gazes; but in the unobtrusive quiet of the school-room, though no eye, save that of God, witness the work, they may infuse such a love of our country and its institutions into the hearts of the coming generations of children, that the Republic, on its secure foundations, will stand as firmly as the Egyptian pyramids.

IX. A NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

BY ANDREW JACKSON RICKOFF.

An address delivered at Harrisburg before the National Teacher's Association, Aug. 18, 1864.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION:—

HAVE you come here to Harrisburg to see and become acquainted with those men whose fame has spread beyond the boundaries of their own States, and whose names have been regarded by you with feelings of affection and admiration, or did you come to take by the hand old friends, and to renew the offerings which you once laid, years ago, upon the altar of friendship? If it is this for which you came, you do well. It is a happy resting point in the journey of life, and you go on your way refreshed, and strengthened too, by the consciousness that others are thinking of you, that they appreciate your labors and understand your plans the better because they have seen you face to face, have learned your habits of thought, and above all have learned to esteem the qualities of your heart. You feel that in time of need you can obtain the advice and counsel of a friend with whom you not only reciprocated the courtesies which are here interchanged, but who, you know, loves and respects you, more easily than you could from a stranger. Or, have you come here by rail-car and steamboat to hear the great doctrines of education expounded by men whose luminous minds can shed light upon your own? Do you come to catch a brand from the great flame of enthusiasm that here burns, with which you may kindle a like flame in your own State and neighborhood? I congratulate you that this National Association has been organized, though it may have been to accomplish nothing more than this. Happy the state or nation which has a body of teachers so anxious to preserve and spread the sacred fire.

Or have these two purposes associated themselves in your thoughts? Having come here primarily to meet with and make the acquaintance of those of whom you have heard in the distance, to warm your own hearts in the glowing warmth of kind faces, faces that shall come in the night to stand encouragingly by you when cares and anxieties drive sleep from your pillows. Shall I ask

whether, having come together for such purposes, you desire only to avail yourself of the opportunity to hear how they speak and talk on any subject, so only that you do hear them speak and talk? It is well, again—any thing that will bring and bind together the great brotherhood of schoolmasters. But the question bluntly recurs again, what did you come to Harrisburg on this occasion for? What do you want to do, or to have done? I repeat it now not as to individuals, but as to an Association. To hear addresses on subjects, the most momentous that can engage the attention of man? To discuss questions which rise as high above the material interests of the time, as that for which all other things are made may be supposed to be superior to the mere accessories of its being? But what of these addresses—what will you do with them? Will they move this Association to throw itself into any great national movement of the day, by its mass and by its intellectual and moral weight to decide the issue. What of those discussions? Are they councils of war, in the great antagonists of light and darkness, are they the laying of plans for assault upon the frowning castles of prejudice, fortified by long continued habits and customs descended from the fathers? In what will these discussions eventuate? Will they promote any great national cause? If so, how will they promote it? By discussions, which shall enable each one to throw what light he can on the subject at issue, so that all may see, as in the collected radiance of every mind. Do you propose to stop there? Not in an American assembly, where the fruit of a discussion is said to be a resolution. You will pass resolutions expressive, as the orators say, of the sense of this meeting. These resolutions will be spread upon the minutes, and they will be thus perpetuated. But any thing farther than this? Every such association has its organs of communication with the people. Political councils make their platforms, and canvass every district to support them. Religious conferences and assemblies have their boards, meeting from time to time, and their agents in every pulpit. Mission, Bible and Tract Societies have their boards, and the boards their secretaries and agents, and expend vast sums of money annually in printing and in the employment of colporteurs. Thus do they give effect to their resolutions. And the results of their deliberations are manifested in immediate decisive action.

But do we need any such agencies, or do the purposes of our assembling together terminate with the members of the Association or in the immediate neighborhood of our place of meetings? Do we want the people to do any thing? Do we have any thing to ask of

the Government. If we do, the question recurs again, what is it? I will answer and say, first, what we want; second, how to get it.

In the first place, then, it is the duty of this National Teachers' Association to labor for the extension of an opportunity to acquire a good Common School education to every boy and girl in the land, white and black. Now, we know that there are several States in this Union where the provisions for popular education are entirely inadequate to the end proposed. The deference which has always been paid by the people of each State to the people of all other States, before the Rebellion, had prevented free and open reference to this state of affairs, either in the meetings of this Association or elsewhere. But since the establishment of the Association, how great the change. To-day all those sections where education had been so sadly neglected are occupied by military forces and controlled by military law. The barriers, real and imaginary, that withstood the advancement of education in those parts, have been broken down, nay, ground to powder beneath the tramp of armed hosts, and with the hundreds of thousands of ignorant whites* stand up MILLIONS of slaves, whose shackles have fallen under the purified and blood-redeemed flag of the stars and stripes. They, to-day, depend upon and look to the President and Congress of the United States for the light and liberty of education. Has this Association any thing to do with this work? In the call which led to the first meeting there occur these words, "Believing that what has been done for States, by State Associations, may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia, on the 26th of August, for the purpose of organizing a National Teacher's Association." Again, the preamble to the constitution then adopted says, "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are hereunto annexed, agree to adopt the following constitution." But, in absence of these proofs of the intent and purpose of the Association, it would be difficult to conceive of a national meeting of teachers, the design of which should not be the promotion of the cause of popular education in the United States.

* Out of 8,477,069 inhabitants of the States comprised in the territory of seven of the original thirteen States, or more particularly of the New England and Middle States, there were, in 1850, 102,837 who could not read and write, while in the States of equal age, the remaining six of the thirteen, including all from Maryland to Georgia, out of 2,733,075 white inhabitants, 273,390 could not read or write. In the Free States one out of eighty-two or three, in the Slave States one out of ten.

But what can we do in this mighty work—a work too great indeed for this generation? To have worthily attempted it, however, will be our greatest claim upon the esteem of posterity. But, whatever may be the difficulties of the problem, it must be solved, and surely it falls to none more naturally than to this Association, to contribute its aid to promote the final victory. So long as the government of those States is in the hands of provisional governors and the military power, the work we have to do is mainly to be done with the National Legislature and the Department of the Interior at Washington. We have to deal with some who have been themselves reared in and amidst common schools. They are open to reason. But so long as the people of those States nominally held the power, they were inaccessible. One class, because of the stability of slavery and the dominance of the slave-owning classes, was secure only in the ignorance of the poor whites, and they were at once too ignorant and too much under the influence and power of the slaveocracy to be induced to step forth in the march of improvement, and a third class were prohibited from learning to read, and the severest penalties of the statute laws were directed against persistence in teaching them, and the yet severer penalties of Lynch law, the gag, the thumbscrew, and the gallows, against even the suspicion of an attempt to do so. Now, as soon as the civil government is thrown back into the hands of the people, through the arrogance of the first class and the servility of the second, the door will be again shut against the common schoolmaster. Mayor Andrews, of Columbia, Tenn., who, in the temporary absence of the Provost Marshal at that place, closed up three schools which John Ogden, the said Provost Marshal, had opened for the instruction of the colored people, and subjected an old gray-haired minister of the Gospel to twenty-five lashes for teaching slaves to read, is a representative of the whole as a class. The diffusion of knowledge among the people will be resisted by them so long as they have power to resist. Teachers will be discouraged in every way that human ingenuity can suggest or malignity prompt. They will be treated as intruders, and not unfrequently may we expect to see them made the victims of ruffian outrage as in times past. The missionary that was lately killed by the savages of the New Zealand Islands a few weeks ago, suffered a scarcely less terrible fate than teachers would have met with five years ago had they openly persisted in teaching negroes to read in any of the Southern States. The spirit is not yet dead. It lies in abeyance to the military power. And it is only while we may reach the masses of the people, black and white, under the protection of

our bayonets, that we may hope to impart to them a consciousness of power, which will, when the military arm is withdrawn, rise and assert itself against the arrogance of the slave lord. In some places, the effort is now making by the Government itself, and it is the paramount duty of this Association to lend it all the support which its influence can give it, and all the assistance its wisdom can suggest. But what is the available first step to be taken? What possible avenue of influence can be established between this Association and the Government at Washington? There is only one. The Government must recognize the cause of general education as a part of its care, not by direct encouragement alone, but, so far as may be, by influences of every kind, which can induce a people to regard the matters that concern it as of the highest interest. A Department of Education must be established along side of the Department of Agriculture. The act establishing such an office might be almost identical with the act establishing the Department of Agriculture, excepting only the clause relating to the duties of the office, to which I shall again refer. At present let us look to the special duty of such an office in connection with the great task which is to-day before this nation. To reorganize the government of the Southern States, but in such a way as to provide for the education of every child and adult in the land as soon as possible.

Doubtless such a proposition will be met with jeers from some quarters, and from others with more than derision—bitter opposition. We shall be accused of proposing to make the general Government a missionary to propagate the institutions of the North on Southern soil, and to interfere with the family and social arrangements of the people. Well, be it so. If you call it improper interference with the social institutions of the South to provide for common schools, accessible to every boy and girl in the States, whether they be white or black, we accept the imputation and whatever opprobrium may be attached to it. Napoleon III. never manifested greater genius than when he gave to a great law of progress a name which at once states and almost proves it. The "logic of facts" is a phrase equivalent to the doctrine that there is a logical sequence of events in the history of the world, which it is impossible safely to disturb or hinder.

Now, what are the facts as they bear upon the question in hand? Simply these; out of regard for constitutional compromises, as before stated, we had suffered an institution to thrive and strengthen, which in its very nature promised to destroy all our free institutions—which, indeed, was on the very verge of throttling the liberty of

speech and of press throughout the whole land, as effectually as it had been done on every square inch of its own soil. Blinded to a danger of such fearful magnitude, it is no wonder that others were obscured in its mighty shadow. So long as the ignorance of the poor whites was exhibited only in the reports of the Census Bureau, we congratulated ourselves that we were not as the heathen. But when it became a tool of inconceivable power in the hands of the authors and instigators of black rebellion, when we saw its vast squadrons arrayed beneath a hostile flag, and when at Gettysburg and on a hundred battle-fields the continent shook beneath its ominous tread, we began to look at it in another light—as the implacable foe of all free institutions. Thank God that through the energy and intelligence fostered in the free schools of the North, the enemy has been routed on the battle-field and his legions have been dispersed. But, again I say, the fell spirit that animated them is not destroyed. He still lives th ever ready instrument of the old master. We must follow him to his last hiding place. He must be exterminated, not in the light of gleaming sabers and the conflagration of cities and towns, but in the radiance that shall beam from ten thousand primary schools. But this is provision only for security from the ignorance and degradation of the poor whites. He, taught to look upon honest, earnest, and continuous toil as degrading, and spending his time, as far as he might, in sensuous idleness and independence of physical restraint, learned to look with envy upon the slave lord, and, as a possible owner of slaves himself, became our enemy; but the slave, though ignorant, possibly more ignorant than he, by unremitting and unrequited toil, by violated homes, by the lash and the searing iron, learned to look upon the luxurious life of his masters in a very different light, and he became our friend, or I should rather say, was our friend from the beginning. He must be strengthened against the vices of the whites, and against the wiles, the guile and hate of his baffled masters and their minions. He must be fortified against them, by learning to look upon himself as a man, not in form and frame alone, but in mind and soul—in a word, by the knowledge of himself which only comes from education. We can not wait our leisure in this work. Ahead are the defeated insurgents, knocking for readmittance into the halls of Congress and clamoring for the rights of self-government in local affairs. Already are the friends of the freedman claiming suffrage for him as his right and our only safeguard. As the blood and treasure of the Republic has been freely expended in the subjugation of the rebel armies, its intelligence and exhaustless energy will be severely taxed

to educate and prepare them for the proper exercise of those rights which must, sooner or later, be again placed in their hands. Under the providence of God we have blindly fought for the freedom of the slave, and our next great task must be to educate him. The whole work should be under the direction of a Commissioner of Education, a man who should be qualified to organize and direct the energies of the whole people, not alone with reference to present emergency, and whose duty it should be to elaborate the best possible scheme of education for the South, which the Government should see carried out. This is not a missionary society, having agents and teachers in the field. That ground is taken up by another association. But we can and we ought to advise as to the course to be taken by the Government in the first stage of the affair; and I repeat it, that the very first and the most important of all recommendations to be made is, that Congress, at the very next session, should establish an Educational Department, and authorize the President to appoint a Commissioner of Education. But it is not only to meet the present state of affairs, in the only way in which it can properly be met, that I make this proposition. There is no plan by which the national government can promote the cause of education in the North and in the South so easily as by the appointment of a National Commissioner of Education. We shall presently see that the interest to which we appeal, has always been exercised by the legislative and executive departments at Washington. We propose no radical innovation, nor is the proposition new. It has been made again and again in State and National associations, and has, I believe, always received their sanction, and I shall make no argument in its favor, further than the one I have already urged, except to state somewhat precisely the general duties to which a Commissioner of Education should devote his energies. But it will be seen that every specification is an argument.

He should make himself thoroughly acquainted with the public school system of each State, as to its general and local officers and their relative duties, the different classes of public schools, the plans of taxation resorted to for public purposes, and the amounts raised thereby, the amount and nature of the investment of all school funds the interest of which is applied to school purposes, and the amount derived from all other sources. He should study the school statistics of the respective States, noting particularly, wherever it is possible to obtain such information, the average length of time the common schools have been kept open, the number of children entered, the average number belonging and average daily attendance,

the number of children of each age attending school, and, so far as possible, the nature of the attendance as to the length of time children remain in the schools and the degree of regularity in attendance while enrolled, and of those matters which in their nature are variable, he should make report on or before the 1st of January of each year, and of those matters which are more permanent he should make separate report, as often as once in four years, on the January preceding the expiration of each presidential term.

He should, as far as possible, ascertain the number of chartered institutions of learning of every grade, their endowments, courses of study, number of students, charges for instruction, &c.—the number and character of all societies for the diffusion of useful knowledge, and the plans adopted for effecting their objects, and the number of publications of different kinds made thereby—the number and character of societies of adults formed for mutual improvement, and the number of members participating in the advantages thereof—and these facts, and whatever other information he can gather from any and all sources whatsoever, bearing upon the educational facilities in the respective States, he should embody in his annual report.

He should be required to make himself acquainted as well as possible with the school systems of foreign countries, their means of support, their organization, the courses of study pursued in Primary, Grammar, and High Schools, Academies, Seminaries, Normal Schools, Gymnasia, Colleges, Universities, &c., for the education of the young—the means of support, organization, and plans of procedure of societies established for mutual improvement and of societies and institutions of all kinds for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men, whether literary, scientific, artistic, or industrial, also of all institutions established for deaf, mute, blind, and imbecile children and adults, as well as schools and institutions of all classes, designed for the care of orphan and destitute children or for the reformation of juvenile vagrants and offenders against law, and of all special schools, not above named, for the improvement of their members in the various arts and professions of life.

He should make it a special object to procure and keep on file for ready and convenient use all Educational Reports, both general and local, of all authorities engaged in the management and instruction of any and all of the institutions above named. He should establish an educational library which should contain not only these reports, but all valuable works and periodicals treating on educational subjects, especially those published in the English, German, and French languages, and of those which would be likely to prove most ser-

viceable in this country, he should make translations, or cause the same to be made, and print them in his annual reports. He should procure and preserve for examination by teachers and school officers, specimens of all maps, charts, diagrams, and pictured representations of all kinds whatsoever used in the processes of instruction, all kinds of primary school apparatus, all kinds of school furniture used in this or foreign countries, and finally :—

In his annual reports he should embrace all information which might seem valuable to school officers and teachers of all grades and to officers and members of all kinds of scientific and literary institutions and associations, and he should especially direct attention to all those features of institutions at home and abroad which might seem to him best adapted for general introduction throughout the United States, and particularly should he communicate such information as would be likely to encourage the formation of societies for the enlightened improvement among all classes of our population. We shall be told that the National Government has nothing to do with education in the several States. By way of compulsion exercised towards States or individuals, perhaps not. This is true at least of the States now maintaining their proper and constitutional relation to the Union. How far it may be true in those communities in which civil law itself is administered by Provost Marshals, it would be hard to say. One thing is certain, viz., that if the present state of affairs continues even two years more, and from appearances it is likely to continue even longer than that, provision must be made somehow for the education of the young, whose years will not wait even amidst the din of arms. But even if all the States should assume their original rights under the Constitution and laws within the present year, it is, to say the least, somewhat doubtful whether it could be deemed consistent with future safety to permit more than a third part of the population of the South to be condemned to hopeless ignorance. It is certain that if those who were formerly slaves, but who are now legally free, are still to be held in a bondage, which, if not so severe, is yet as veritable as that from which they have been released, there can be no permanent security for the future.

Whether then the General Government shall continue to exercise a sort of guardianship over the colored population of the South, where they are, or attempt the utopian scheme of colonizing them in some unoccupied territory, or whatsoever it may do, it can not throw off the responsibility of seeing that they be educated as freemen. If the ballot-box is set before them, their education must be

fostered and encouraged as liberally, at least, as it has been done for the white man. That the Government is competent to this is as clear as that it has ever regarded it as a duty to promote the cause of learning throughout the whole country.

That the Father of his Country reserved a spot of ground in the city of Washington for a National University, and that John Quincy Adams afterwards, in his first message to Congress, complained that it was yet "bare and barren," attest the construction which these eminent statesmen put upon the relation of the General Government to this great subject. And that Congress has, up to this time, donated a hundred thousand square miles of land, or nearly as many broad acres as the States of Maryland, Pennsylvania and New York contain, sufficiently indicates the views entertained as to this matter by the Senate and House of Representatives. The only departments of Government which have taken action on this subject at all, have shown a worthy appreciation of the cause of education, and have, by repeated acts, established, so far at least as precedent can establish any doctrine, that it is their right and duty to aid it in every practicable way. That a Bureau, or better, a Department of Education has not been established, is owing, perhaps, to the fact that educational men have not pressed the consideration of the matter upon Congress. I am aware that they have repeatedly called each other's attention to it, but whether they have ever succeeded in getting it before either the Senate or House of Representatives, I do not know. Or, in other words, I do not know whether they have succeeded in eliciting sufficient interest in the proposition to induce a single member of Congress to introduce a bill for the establishment of a department of education. However this may be, no period has occurred in the history of the nation, when the dependence of our free institutions upon the intelligence of the people and the consequent importance of the proposed action have been so apparent as now; and no period is likely to come when it would be easier to secure it respectful attention than at the next session of Congress. We know, at the same time, that no meeting of that body has yet taken place at which questions have come up at once so important and so difficult of solution as are those which will press themselves on its attention; and though there should be a strong tendency to conservatism, there are radical questions which can not be ignored. Among these the necessity of a strong guarantee on the part of the recently rebel States, to the effect that ample provision shall be made for the education of every class of their population, can not be set aside. Or, if that can not be secured, provision

will have to be made for it at the expense of the National Treasury, and under teachers employed directly or indirectly by a National Commissioner of Education. For if any thing has been demonstrated by the convulsions and bloodshed of the last four years, this has been established beyond question, viz., that the security and permanence of our free institutions depend a thousand times more upon a rigid adherence to the fundamental principles of free government, than upon a formal compliance with assumed constitutional compromises, based on the principles of injustice and oppression; ten thousand times more upon the intelligence and morality of the people than upon fleets and armies, for though these be the strong arms of Government, they are nerved and controlled by the average intellect and heart of the nation. Surely in this hour, when we need the counsels of the wisest and best of statesmen, we should not fail to call to mind the admonitions of those whose memories sanctify our halls of legislation, and whose statues, chiseled in ever-during marble, have been erected by a grateful people, not to perpetuate their fame, which can never die, but to attest a nation's heartfelt gratitude.

From the time of the formation of the Constitution there has been no statesman or public man of any prominence, who has manifested a love for and confidence in a democratic form of government, that has not reiterated, on every proper occasion, the sentiment that the intelligence of the people is the great safeguard of liberty. Our common schools have been called the "corner stone of the Republic," the palladium of our liberties. Are these mere figures of speech, happy turns of expression made to captivate the ears and call forth the applause of idle listeners, or, are they great principles to be cemented into the very structure of civil government? Or, if they be true, must they yield on all occasions to a painfully delicate regard for local prejudices and supposed local rights that may possibly conflict with them? But whether the General Government may or may not do a single act which may possibly be suspected of leaning toward interference with the educational jurisprudence of any State, even in those where no law is administered save by military tribunals, there is yet ground, not only sufficient, but all sufficient and prevailing, wherefore it should establish a Department, the particular province of which should be in every proper way to promote the cause of education in all the States. It is not alledged that the appointment of a Commissioner of Agriculture whose duty, in the words of the law, is "to acquire and to diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects con-

nected with agriculture in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word, and to procure, propagate and distribute among the people new and valuable seeds and plants"—it is not, I say, alledged that this act is an infringement of the rights reserved to the respective States or to the people. We need to ask for no higher power for the Commissioner of Education within his department than is assigned to the Commissioner of Agriculture within his. What further duties might, in the anomalous state of our affairs, fall to his lot, would need no further provision than is made in the exact terms of the law establishing the Department of Agriculture, where it says that "He" (the commissioner) "shall also make special reports on particular subjects whenever required to do so by the President or either House of Congress, or when he shall think the subject in his charge requires it."

X. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

PREFACE.

THE history of associations for the establishment of schools and the advancement of education in this country—or the assent of several persons to a common method of accomplishing a specific educational purpose—begins with a subscription commenced by the Chaplain of the Royal James, (Rev. M. Copeland,) on her arrival from the East Indies, in 1621, towards the erection of a *Free School*—or an Endowed Grammar School, in Charles City, Virginia. The first school in New England was probably started in the same way—that is, by a subscription by "the richer inhabitants of the town of Boston on the 22d of August, 1636," "towards the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us." The *free schoole* in Roxburie," designated by Cotton Mather as the *Schola illustris*, was established by an agreement or association of a portion of the inhabitants who joined in an act or agreement binding the subscribers and their estates to the extent of their subscription, "to erect a free schoole" "for the education of their children in Literature to fit them for the publicke service both in Churche and Commonwealthe in succeeding ages." Nearly all that class of schools now known as Grammar Schools, Academies and Seminaries, except the Town, or Public High Schools, were originally established on the principle of association. So was it with nearly every College in the country. The ten persons selected by the synod of the churches in Connecticut in 1698 from the principal ministers of the Colony to found, erect, and govern a "School of the Church," met and formed themselves into a society and agreed to found a college in the Colony; and for this purpose each of the Trustees at a subsequent meeting brought a number of books and presented them to the association, using words to this effect, as he laid them on the table: "I give these books for founding a college in Connecticut," "wherein," as afterwards declared, "youth shall be instructed in all parts of learning to qualify them for public employment in church and civil state."

Although the Common School generally was established by act of legislation—as in Connecticut and Massachusetts—to exclude

from every family that "barbarism as would allow in its midst a single child unable to read the Holy Word of God and the good laws of the Colony," those of Philadelphia and New York originated in voluntary associations of benevolent and patriotic individuals.

Nearly all professional schools for law, theology, and medicine, and every institution intended to provide for the exceptional classes —such as orphans, infants, juvenile offenders, deaf mutes, blind, imbecile children, or to introduce new methods, such as the monitorial, manual labor, and infant—originated in societies.

All of those educational enterprises, in which the religious element constitutes the leading object, such as the Sunday-School, the publication and dissemination of the Bible and religious books, have been carried on through voluntary associations.

The earliest movement for the advancement of education generally in the United States, through an association, originated in Boston in 1826, but did not take shape till some years later, although the object was partially attained through the agency of Lyceums, which were established for other purposes as well, in the same year. In the lectures and other exercises of the Lyceum, wherever established, the condition and improvement of schools—the school-house, studies, books, apparatus, methods of instruction and discipline, the professional training of teachers, and the whole field of school legislation and administration, were fully and widely discussed.

Out of the popular agitation already begun, but fostered by the Lyceum movement, originated, about the year 1830, many special school conventions and associations for the advancement of education, especially in the public schools. Most of these associations, having accomplished their purposes as a sort of scaffolding for the building up of a better public opinion, and of a better system of school legislation, have given way to new organizations founded on the same principle of the assent of many individuals to a common method of accomplishing special purposes. The history and condition of these various associations, both those which have accomplished their purpose, and those which are still in operation, having for their field the Nation or the State, will be herein briefly set forth.

To understand the condition of the schools, and of the popular estimate of education as it was about the beginning of this century, we introduce a series of articles which appeared in the Journal of Education, composed mainly of letters descriptive of the schools as they were sixty and seventy years ago, by individuals who were pupils and teachers in the same.

PROPOSALS FOR FORMING A SOCIETY OF EDUCATION IN 1826.

The following Proposals was addressed to many teachers and known friends of education for their consideration, Sept., 1826:—

THE establishment of a society for any of the numerous objects connected with human improvement, is a thing of so common occurrence, as hardly to call for apology or explanation. In the present state of the public mind with regard to the subject of education, in particular, prefatory discussion seems unnecessary. The conviction appears to be universal that the happiness of individuals and of society is dependent, to a great extent, on the information, the discipline, and the habits, which are imparted by physical, intellectual, and moral exercise, regulated by good instruction. Some of the considerations, however, which seem most strongly to urge the measure now proposed, are entitled to particular attention.

The progress of improvement in education has not hitherto been duly aided by *combined and concentrated effort*,—by mutual understanding and efficient co-operation. That this advantage is highly desirable needs not to be inculcated on any one who has attentively observed the operations or the progress of the religious and philanthropic institutions of the day. The piety and benevolence of separate individuals might have done much for the happiness of man, but could never have achieved the magnificent result of translating the Scriptures into the languages of so many nations, nor that of turning a whole people from the rites of idolatry, or the habits of barbarism. It is matter of regret that, whilst the zeal of thousands has been made to meet on so many other objects, and push them onward to brilliant success, no such union has hitherto been attempted in the great cause of education. Here and there we have had an excellent school-book, an eminent instructor, a vigilant and faithful school-committee, a distinguished institution, a memorable endowment, or a local arrangement, which has justly immortalized its projectors. But there has not been any attempt made to offer, to the country at large, the benefits likely to result from an association of men eminent and active in literature, in science, and in public life; from an extensive interchange of views on the part of instructors or from an enlightened and harmonious concurrence in a uniform set of books fitted to become the vehicles of instruction, and rendered as perfect as the united judgment of literary men and of teachers could make them. School-committees have labored industriously, indeed, but from the want of a proper channel of communication, they have not acted in concert. Endowments have, in not a few instances, been conferred with so little judgment as to become disadvantageous rather than beneficial; and town and State policy in regard to education has, though admirable in its temporary results and its restricted sphere, been so cramped in respect to time and place, as to lose much of its proper influence.

A society such as is proposed would, in all probability, do away these and similar impediments to the career of improvement, and prove a powerful engine in accelerating the intellectual progress and elevating the character of the nation.

1. As *the earliest stages of education* require, from their prospective importance as well as their natural place, the peculiar attention of parents and teachers, the proposed society would direct its attention to every thing which might seem likely to aid parents in the domestic education of their offspring, or in the establishment of schools for infants.

2. Another object of the society would be to aid *instructors* in the discharge of their duties. So much has recently been written and so well on this subject, that it seems to require but little discussion here. Let it suffice to say, that every effort would be made which might seem likely to be of service to teachers, whether by the training of youth with reference to the business of teaching, by instituting lectures on the various branches of education, by suggesting methods of teaching these branches, by using, in a word, every means of imparting a facility in communicating knowledge and in directing the youthful mind, so as to furnish instructors with the best attainable knowledge and the best possible qualifications in the branches which they might wish to teach.

A school or college for teachers, though an excellent and a practicable object, can not be put into operation in a day, nor by any single act of legislation, nor by the solitary efforts of any individual. If there is a season for every thing under the sun, there must be, in this undertaking, an incipient stage of comparative feebleness and doubt and experiment and hazard, which, however, will no doubt give place to a day of ample success, in an unparalleled amount of private and public good. The only questions are, *Where* shall this undertaking be commenced?—*when?*—and by *whom?* Should a simultaneous movement to effect this great object be made, as in all probability it will in New York, in Connecticut, and in Massachusetts, and perhaps in other States, such a society as is now

proposed might contribute valuable services to the measures which might be adopted for this purpose.

The society ought not to restrict its attention to instructors of any order, but should endeavor to embrace the services and the duties of all, from the lowest to the highest in the scale of advancement; and the mutual understanding and the universal co-operation thus secured in the business of instruction would probably be one of the greatest advantages resulting from this society.

3. An object of vast importance in the formation of a society such as is contemplated would be the collecting of a *library of useful works on education.* The members of the society would, by means of such assistance, proceed more intelligently and efficiently in the prosecution of their views; and if the library were made to comprise copies of every accessible school-book, American or European, it would furnish its readers with the means of valuable and extensive improvement in their respective branches of instruction. The advantage thus afforded would be equally serviceable to such of the society as might be employed in aiding teachers by lectures or otherwise, and to those teachers themselves.

4. A subject closely connected with the preceding would be *the improvement of school-books.* It is a thing not merely convenient or advantageous to education, and to the character of our national literature, that there should be a uniformity in school-books throughout the country; this subject possesses a political value, which reaches even to the union by which we are constituted a powerful and independent nation. Local peculiarities of sentiment and undue attachments to local custom are the results, in a great measure, of education. We do not surely lay ourselves open to the imputation of being sanguine when we venture say, that a national uniformity in plans of instruction and in school-books would furnish a bond of common sentiment and feeling stronger than any that could be produced by any other means, in the season of early life. The precise extent to which this desirable improvement might be carried would, of course, depend, in some degree, on the feelings of individuals no less than on those of any society. But every rational and proper effort would no doubt be made to render such arrangement agreeable to the views and wishes of instructors and of the authors of school-books throughout the United States.

5. In the present early stage of this business it is thought better not to multiply or extend observations, but to leave details for a more matured stage of procedure. A useful guide to *particular regulations* is accessible in Count de Lasteyrie's *Nouveau Systeme d'Education.* See that pamphlet, or the translation of part of it, given in the appendix to Dr. Griscom's Mutual Instruction. Another useful guide will be found in Jullien's *Esquisse d'un Ouvrage sur Education Compares.*

6. The vastly desirable benefit of complete and harmonious co-operation would require that several, if not all, of the large towns and cities in the United States should contain *a central committee* for managing the concerns of such a society; as *auxiliaries* to which and modeled on the same plan, professional men and teachers, as well as other persons interested in education, and capable of promoting it, might associate themselves in every town or convenient vicinity. A corresponding member from every such association, and one or more from a central committee, might, with great ease and dispatch, conduct all the business of the proposed society in any one State; and a similar arrangement on the great scale might complete the organization of the society for the United States. The whole affair offers nothing either complicated or troublesome; all that is wanted is a sufficiency of zeal and enterprise to commence and of perseverance to sustain the undertaking.

For an idea of the good likely to be accomplished by a society for the improvement of education, reference may be made to the proceedings of the *French Society of Education*, or to the present condition of the primary schools of Holland, which have attained to that condition through the efforts of a society duly impressed with the value of education, and vigorously devoting themselves to its improvement. The result of that society's labors has been nothing short of an intellectual and moral regeneration in the sphere of its action, accomplished, too, in the brief space of thirty years.

Mention might here be made also of the British and Foreign School Society which has done so much for the dissemination of improved instruction at home and abroad; and which has rendered the benefits of education as accessible to the people of England, as they have been or are to those of Scotland, of New England, or of Holland. We might mention, too, the Infant School Society as an institution which is dispensing the blessings of early instruction and moral refinement among the youngest class of British population.

The above moderate Proposals should be read in connection with the Contents and Index of the *History of Educational Associations (National and State) in the United States in* 1864. 848 pages.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS; An Account of Conventions and Societies for the Improvement of Schools and the Promotion of Education in the United States, with Biographical Sketches of their Founders and Presidents, and an Introduction on Schools and Teachers prior to 1800. Republished from Barnard's American Journal of Education. 400 pages. Price, $2.50, in paper cover, and without Portraits.

☞ *Illustrated Edition*, with at least 25 Portraits, *in Cloth Binding*, $3.50.

CONTENTS.

Page.
NATIONAL AND STATE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, ... 1-364
INTRODUCTION, ... 1-138
SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES PRIOR TO 1800, ... 7
EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY, ... 11
I. The Original Free School of New England, ... 13
Mastership of Ezekiel Cheever—1638-1708, ... 13
The Free School of New Haven, Ipswich, and Boston, ... 15
First Free School in Virginia, in 1621, ... 16
First Free School in Roxbury and Salem, ... 17
School Days of Rev. John Barnard—1689, ... 23
School Days of Rev. Benjamin Coleman, D. D.—1678, ... 26
Coote's English Schoolmaster, ... 27
Cheever's Latin Accidence, ... 28
Rev. Cotton Mather, D. D.—Discourse on Cheever, ... 33
Note. The Town Free School of Dorchester, ... 39
School Regulations, School-Books, and School-Houses as they were, ... 40
The Royal Primer—New England Primer—The Horn-Book—The Child's Guide, ... 41
View of School-Houses and their Apparatus, ... 52
The Schools of Boston from 1783 to 1800, from a Memoir of Caleb Bingham, ... 53
Condition of Public Schools in Boston in 1784, ... 55
Institution of the Double-Headed System, ... 56
Prohibition of Private Schools, ... 58
First Appointment of a School Committee in 1792, ... 59
School-Books—Head-masters—Course of Study, ... 61
School-Books of Noah Webster and Caleb Bingham, ... 65
II. Schools and Academies, prior to 1800, described mainly by their Pupils and Teachers, ... 69
1. Letter from Noah Webster, LL. D., ... 69
Letter from Heman Humphrey, D. D., ... 71
Letter from Hon. Joseph Buckingham, ... 75
Letter from Eliphalet Nott, D.D., ... 81
Recollections of the District-School, by Peter Parley, (S. G. Goodrich,) 82
Homespun Era of Common Schools, by Horace Bushnell, D. D., ... 90
The New England Country School in 1794—a Poem, ... 91
2. Letter from Hon. Salem Town, LL. D., ... 93
Letter from Hon. Josiah Quincy, Senior, LL. D., ... 97
Letter from William Darlington, M. D., ... 99
The Schools of Philadelphia, by "Lang Syne," 102
The Schools of Boston in 1780, from the Memoranda of a Pupil, ... 103
The Schools of Boston in 1800, by Edward Everett, ... 105
An Old Field School and Academy in Virginia in 1801, ... 107
Condition of Schools in Delaware, by Robert Coram, ... 108
3. Condition of Schools in North Carolina—Experience of C. Caldwell. M. D., ... 109
Popular Ignorance and Free Schools in South Carolina, by Gen. Marion, ... 119
Barring-Out—a Georgia School Scene, ... 121
4. Letter from Jeremiah Day, D. D., LL. D., ... 126
Letter from Hon. Willard Hall, ... 127
School-house and School of my Boyhood, by A. Bronson Alcott, ... 130
School Reminiscence, by Henry Ward Beecher, ... 135
5. Reminiscences of Female Education prior to 1800, by "Senex," 137

Page.
I. NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES, 139–400
INTRODUCTION, 139
PROPOSALS TO FORM A SOCIETY OF EDUCATION IN 1826, 139
1. AMERICAN LYCEUM, 141
The American Lyceum—Constitution—Proceedings of Annual Meetings, 143
The Early Lyceum Movement of Josiah Holbrook, 143
Biography of Josiah Holbrook, 164
2. THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF TEACHERS, 165
List of Lectures, Essays, and Reports, 175
Biographical Notices of the President and Active Members, 177
3. AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, 181
Lyceum and Educational Convention in Boston, March 15, 1830, 182
Constitution, Officers, and First Session of American Institute, 188
Contents of Printed Volumes of Lectures from 1830 to 1865, 191
Index to Subject of Lecture and Name of Lecturer, and Topics Discussed, 195
Places of Meeting—Presidents, 210
Biographical Sketches of Presidents, 211
4. NATIONAL LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CONVENTION AND INSTITUTE, 221
5. THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY, 225
Biographical Sketch of S. R. Hall—William A. Alcott—William C. Woodbridge, 230
6. SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING MANUAL LABOR IN LITERARY INSTITUTIONS, 231
Military Drill, German System of Gymnastics, Fellenberg, and Manual Labor Schools, 231
Manual Labor Society—Report of Mr. Weld in 1833, 234
The New Gymnastics of Dr. Lewis—Military Drill Revived, 236
7. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS, 237
8. AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE, 239
Biographical Sketch of Gorham D. Abbott, 246
9. AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL SOCIETY, 247
The American Common School Assistant, 247
Educational Labors of J. Orville Taylor, 248
James Wadsworth's Labors in behalf of Common Schools, 249
10. WESTERN COLLEGE SOCIETY, 261
Origin and Pecuniary Results, 261
List of Permanent Documents, 268
Biographical Sketch of Rev. Theron Baldwin, D. D., 269
11. BOARD OF NATIONAL POPULAR EDUCATION, 271
Biographical Sketch of William Slade, 274
12. AMERICAN WOMAN'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 273
Biographical Sketch of Miss Catherine E. Beecher, 274
13. NORTH-WESTERN EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY, 276
14. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION, 277
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, 301
15. AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOL ASSOCIATION, 317
16. ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE DELEGATES, 321
17. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, 323
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, 331
18. ASSOCIATION OF CITY AND STATE SUPERINTENDENTS, 385
19. SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION, 387
20. NATIONAL FREEDMAN'S EDUCATIONAL AID SOCIETY, 391
21. COOPER UNION—Education Section of Society of Associates, 395

NOTE.

The ILLUSTRATED EDITION will contrain Portraits of Josiah Holbrook; C. E. Stowe—Joseph Ray; F. Wayland—J. G. Carter—G. B. Emerson—T. Sherwin—J. Kingsbury—J. D. Philbrick—D. B. Hagar—A. P. Stone—C. Northend—B. G. Northrop; S. R. Hall—W. A. Alcott—W. C. Woodbridge; G. D. Abbott; J. Wadsworth; T. Baldwin; H. Mann—A. Potter—H. Barnard—H. P. Tappan—F. A. P. Barnard; W. Russell—Z. Richards—A. J. Rickoff—J. W. Bulkley W. H. Wells—S. S. Greene—J. P. Wickersham.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS; Together with Biographical Sketches of their Presidents, and Contributions to the History of Teachers' Institutes, Educational Periodicals, and Municipal Conferences of Teachers in the several States. Republished from Barnard's American Journal of Education. 464 pages. Price, $2.50, in paper cover, and without Portraits.

☞ *Illustrated Edition*, with at least 30 Portraits, *in Cloth Binding*, $3.50.

CONTENTS.

II. STATE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS AND CONVENTIONS. Page.

A. ASSOCIATIONS WHICH HELD AN ANNUAL MEETING IN 1864,....401-848

INTRODUCTION.

1. RHODE ISLAND,....409-448
   - Preliminary Conventions and Associations,.... 405
   - RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION—January 24, 1845,.... 411
     - Educational Tracts—Library of Educational Books,.... 419
     - Topics of Discussions and Lectures—Educational Journal,.... 421
     - Itinerating Agent and Teachers' Institutes,.... 423
     - Coöperation of R. I. Institute, Teachers, and State Commissioner,.... 425
     - Abstract of Official Record of Proceedings from 1844 to 1864,.... 433
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 447
       - Portraits of N. Bishop—J. Kingsbury—S. S. Greene—W. S. Baker,.... 447

2. NEW YORK,....449-506
   - Preliminary Conventions and Associations,.... 449
   - STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—July 31, 1845,.... 454
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 477
       - Portraits of S. B. Woolworth—C. Davies—L. Hazeltine—E. A. Sheldon—E. North,.. 478
     - Public School Society of the City of New York,.... 489
     - New York City Teachers' Associations,.... 491
     - New York University Convocation,....502
     - Conventions of County Superintendents,.... 505

3. MASSACHUSETTS,....507-538
   - Preliminary Conventions and Associations,.... 507
   - STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—Nov. 29, 1845,.... 511
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 523
       - Portraits of A. Parish—D. B. Hagar—A. P. Stone—C. Northend,.... 523
       - W. E. Sheldon—J. D. Philbrick,.... 525
     - Boston Associations of Teachers,.... 527

4. OHIO,....539-592
   - Preliminary History of Schools and Conventions,.... 539
   - STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—December 31, 1847,.... 543
     - Traveling Agent—Public Addresses—Teachers' Institutes,.... 543
     - Union Schools—Educational Periodical—School and Township Libraries,.... 547
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 583
       - Portraits of S. Galloway—L. Andrews—A. D. Lord—E. E. White—I. W. Andrews, 583
     - Association of Principals and Teachers of Female Colleges,.... 591

5. CONNECTICUT,....593-616
   - Preliminary Conventions and Associations,.... 593
   - STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—April 15, 1848,.... 597
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 605
       - Portrait of H. Barnard—D. N. Camp,.... 606
     - Middlesex County Educational Society,.... 609
     - Kensington Female Common School Association,.... 612

6. VERMONT,....617-632
   - Preliminary Conventions,.... 617
   - STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—October 16, 1850,.... 619
     - Biographical Sketches of the Presidents,.... 630
       - Portrait of H. Orcutt,.... 632

Page.
7. MICHIGAN, ...633-646
Preliminary Conventions, ... 633
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—October 12, 1852, ... 635
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 640
Portraits of I. Mayhew—J. M. Gregory, ... 641
8. PENNSYLVANIA, ...647-668
Preliminary Educational History, ... 647
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—December 29, 1852, ... 649
List of Lecturers and Subjects of Lectures and Papers, ... 668
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 673
Portraits of T. H. Burrowes—J. P. Wickersham—C. R. Coburn—J. F. Stoddard, ... 675
F. A. Allen—S. P. Bates, ... 681
Philadelphia Educational and Teachers' Associations, ... 683
9. WISCONSIN, ...689-704
Preliminary Educational History, ... 689
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—July 13, 1853, ... 689
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 695
Portraits of J. L. Pickard—J. G. McMynn—W. C. Whitford, ... 695
10. ILLINOIS, ...705-728
Preliminary Conventions and Associations, ... 705
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—December 27, 1853, ... 709
Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 721
Portraits of N. Bateman—R. Edwards—J. V. N. Standish—C. E. Hovey, ... 723
Jacksonville Ladies' Educational Society, ... 727
11. NEW JERSEY, ...729-744
Preliminary Conventions and Associations, ... 729
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS—December 28, 1853, ... 731
Biographical Sketches, ... 737
Portrait of I. Peckham—W. F. Phelps, ... 743
12. IOWA, ...745-750
Preliminary Conventions, ... 745
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—May 11, 1854, ... 746
Biographical Sketches, ... 749
Portrait of O. Faville, ... 749
13. NEW HAMPSHIRE, ...751-764
Preliminary Conventions, ... 751
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—June 15, 1854, ... 753
Biographical Sketches, ... 761
Portrait of H. E. Sawyer, ... 763
14. INDIANA, ...765-776
Preliminary Conventions, ... 765
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—December 27, 1854, ... 767
Biographical Sketches, ... 775
Portrait of W. D. Henkle, ... 775
15. MAINE, ...777-784
Preliminary Conventions and Associations, ... 777
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—March 23, 1850, ... 779
Biographical Sketches, ... 783
Portrait of E. P. Weston, ... 783
16. KANSAS, ...785-788
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—December 16, 1862, ... 785
Biographical Sketches, ... 787
Portrait of J. C. McCarty—I. T. Goodnow, ... 787
17. CALIFORNIA, ...789-791
STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—May 15, 1863, ... 789
Biographical Sketches, ... 791
Portrait of J. Swett, ... 791
18. OREGON, ... 792
State Educational Association and Teachers' Institute, ... 792

Page
B. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS WHICH DID NOT MEET IN 1864,.....773-864
19. KENTUCKY, ... 793
Mechanics' Institute in 1839—State Education Convention in 1833,..... 793
State Common School Education Society in 1834,..... 794
Lexington Teachers' Association in 1842—State Education Convention in 1851,..... 794
State Teachers' Association in 1857—State Teachers' Association in 1865,..... 796
20. TENNESSEE,..... 797
State Lyceum in 1831,..... 797
State Educational Convention in 1849—State Association in 1849,..... 798
State Teachers' Association in 1865,..... 799
21. GEORGIA, ... 801
Teachers' Society and Board of Education, 1831—State Teachers' Assoc., 1853,..... 801
22. NORTH CAROLINA,..... 803
N. Carolina Institute of Education, 1831—Teachers' Literary Association, 1831,..... 803
State Educational Convention in 1856—State Educational Association, 1856,..... 804
23. SOUTH CAROLINA, ... 806
Lyceum Movement in 1831,..... 806
24. VIRGINIA, ... 807
Virginia Educational Institute—1831,..... 807
Educational Convention at Clarksville in 1841—at Lexington in 1841,..... 807
Education Convention in Richmond in 1841—at Richmond in 1845..... 809
Convention of College and Academic Professors in 1856,..... 810
Letter of Henry A. Wise on Ignorance and Education, in Accomac, in 1852,..... 811
25 MISSOURI,..... 815
State Educational Convention in 1834—State Teachers' Association in 1850,..... 815
St. Louis Teachers' Association, 1848—First Teachers' Institute in Misso., 1852,..... 819
26. DELAWARE, ... 821
New Castle County School Convention in 1836,..... 821
New Castle County Teachers' Association in 1847,..... 824
27. TEXAS,..... 825
Convention at Houston in 1846—Texas Literary Institute in 1846,..... 825
Mass Meeting in 1854,..... 826
28. ALABAMA..... 827
Educational Convention at Selma in 1856—State Educational Association in 1857,..... 827
29. WEST VIRGINIA, ... 829
State Teachers' Association in 1865,..... 829
30. MARYLAND,..... 831
State Movements,..... 831
Baltimore City and County Public School Teachers' Associations,..... 832
Association of County School Commissioners, 1865,..... 834
State Teachers' Convention and Association in 1865,..... 834
31. FLORIDA,..... 835
Florida Education Society in 1830,..... 835
32. ARKANSAS,..... 835
Teachers' Meeting at Helena in 1860,..... 835
33. LOUISIANA,..... 836
Louisiana Institute of Education in 1831—State Teachers' Association in 1850,..... 836
34. MISSISSIPPI, ... 836
County Teachers' Association in 1858,..... 836
35. MINNESOTA, ... 836
36. NEVADA,..... 836
37. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,..... 837
Columbian Association of Teachers,..... 837
III. NORMAL SCHOOL ALUMNI ASSOCIATIONS,..... 839
IV. FRATERNITIES AND ORDERS OF TEACHERS IN CATHOLIC CHURCH, 841
V. EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS, ... 843
VI. MUNICIPAL CONFERENCES OF TEACHERS,..... 849
VII. TEACHERS' INSTITUTES,..... 853
Peculiar Features and Advantages of the American Teachers' Institute,..... 853
Table—Historical Development in the several States,..... 859
INDEX. 861

LIST OF PORTRAITS IN "HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS."

Page.
ABBOTT, GORHAM D., American Useful Knowledge Society, ... 246
ALLEN, FORDYCE A., Pennsylvania Teachers' Association, ... 681
ANDREWS, ISRAEL W., Ohio Teachers' Association, ... 583
ANDREWS, LORIN, Ohio Teachers' Association, ... 390
BAKER, WILLIAM S., Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, ... 423
BALDWIN, THERON, Western College Society, ... 269
BARNARD, HENRY, American Association, ... 432
BATEMAN, NEWTON, Illinois Teachers' Association, ... 719
BATES, SAMUEL P., Pennsylvania Teachers' Association, ... 684
BISHOP, NATHAN, Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, ... 411
BULKLEY, JOHN W., National Teachers' Association, ... 313
BURROWES, THOMAS H., Pennsylvania Teachers' Association, ... 673
CAMP, DAVID N., Connecticut Teachers' Association, ... 605
CARTER, JAMES G., American Institute of Instruction, ... 212
COBURN, CHARLES R., Pennsylvanina Teachers' Association, ... 675
DAVIES, CHARLES, New York Teachers' Association, ... 479
EDWARDS, RICHARD, Illinois Teachers' Association, ... 720
EMERSON, GEORGE B., American Institute of Instruction, ... 215
FAVILLE, ORAN, Iowa Teachers' Association, ... 759
GALLOWAY, SAMUEL, Ohio Teachers' Association, ... 581
GOODNOW, ISAAC T., Kansas Teachers' Association, ... 788
GREENE, SAMUEL S., National Teachers' Association, ... 373
GREGORY, JOHN M., Michigan Teachers' Association, ... 643
HAGAR, DAVID B., American Institute of Instruction, ... 218
HALL, SAMUEL R., American School Society, ... 230
HAZELTINE, LEONARD, New York Teachers' Association, ... 481
HENKLE, WILLIAM D., Indiana Teachers' Association, ... 749
HOLBROOK, JOSIAH, American Lyceum, ... 168
HOVEY, CHARLES E., Illinois Teachers' Association, ... 717
KINGSBURY, JOHN, American Institute of Instruction, ... 215
LORD, AMOS D., Ohio Teachers' Association, ... 983
MANN, HORACE, American Association, ... 281
MAYHEW, IRA, Michigan Teachers' Association, ... 641
McCARTY, HENRY D., Kansas Teachers' Association, ... 787
McMYNN, JOHN G., Wisconsin Teachers' Association, ... 676
NORTH, EDWARD, New York Teachers' Association, ... 484
NORTHEND, CHARLES, American Institute of Instruction, ... 219
NORTHROP, BIRDSEY G., American Institute of Instruction, ... 220
ORCUTT, HIRAM, Vermont Teachers' Association, ... 630
PARISH, ARIEL, Massachusetts Teachers' Association, ... 517
PECKHAM, ISAIAH, New Jersey Teachers' Association, ... 733
PHELPS, WILLIAM F., New Jersey Teachers' Association, ... 739
PHILBRICK, JOHN D., American Institute of Instruction, ... 216
PICKARD, JOSIAH L., Wisconsin Teachers' Association, ... 675
POTTER, ALONZO, American Association, ... 301
RAY, JOSEPH, Western College of Teachers, ... 585
RICHARDS, ZALMON, National Teachers' Association, ... 327
RICKOFF, ANDREW J., National Teachers' Association, ... 334
RUSSELL, WILLIAM, National Teachers' Association, ... 323
SAWYER, HENRY E., New Hampshire Teachers' Association, ... 713
SHELDON, EDWIN A., New York Teachers' Association, ... 484
SHELDON, WILLIAM E., Massachusetts Teachers' Association, ... 525
SHERWIN, THOMAS, American Institute of Instruction, ... 215
STANDISH, JOHN V. N., Illinois Teachers' Association, ... 722
STODDARD, JOHN P., Pennsylvania Teachers' Association, ... 685
STONE, ADMIRAL P., American Institute of Instruction, ... 218
SWETT, JOHN, California Teachers' Association, ... 783
TAPPAN, HENRY P., American Association, ... 312
THAYER, GIDEON F., American Institute of Instruction, ... 214
WADSWORTH, JAMES, American Common School Society, ... 249
WAYLAND, FRANCIS, American Institute of Instruction, ... 211
WELLS, WILLIAM H., American Institute of Instruction, ... 216
WESTON, EDWIN P., Maine Teachers' Association, ... 781
WHITE, EDMUND E., Ohio Teachers' Association, ... 580
WHITFORD, WILLIAM C., Wisconsin Teachers' Association, ... 674
WICKERSHAM, JAMES P., National Teachers' Association, ... 365
WILLARD, Mrs. EMMA, Kensington Female Common School Association, ... 609
WOODBRIDGE, WILLIAM C., American School Society, ... 230
WOOLWORTH, SAMUEL B., New York Teachers' Association, ... 478

☞ *At least Sixty of the above Portraits will be inserted in the Illustrated Edition, and the number of copies printed will be limited to the number of Subscribers to this Edition.*

☞ Although arrangements, believed to be reliable, have been made for securing the engraving, or the impressions from the plates of each Portrait on the above List, the Editor pledges himself only to the number of sixty

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

CIRCULAR.

THE undersigned will devote as large a portion of each number of the "*American Journal of Education*," for 1864 and 1865, as shall be found necessary, to a minutely accurate, but condensed, account of the *State Teachers' Association*, or in the absence of any distinctly professional organization, of any State Educational Association, and in the absence of any such State organization, of any similar County or City Association—for each of the United States. For this purpose, he will be happy to receive communications from the President, or Secretary, or from a committee who may be instructed to furnish the same by any Association, covering the following particulars.

I. Any historical data respecting any Educational Association, prior to the organization of the present State Association.

II. The establishment, including the date, names of the original movers, the Constitution, or Articles of Association, and the first officers, of the present Association.

III. The officers, place and time of each regular meeting, the Subject of each Lecture, Written Report, or Paper read at each meeting, with the name, residence, and professional designation of author, with the Subjects of discussion, and Resolutions relating to schools and education—for each year.

IV. List of any printed documents issued at the expense, or under the auspices of the Association.

V. List of members, with the name of the institution, or educational office, with which they are connected, and their Post Office Address, who attended the last (one or two) regular meetings of the Association, held before the date of the sketch.

To give personal interest to these historical summaries of the doings of the several State Associations, the editor will be happy to insert brief biographical notes of the educational activity of the teachers, whom their associates have selected to preside over and engineer their movements, together with the portraits of the same—so far as reliable data for such sketches, and the portraits shall be furnished.

HENRY BARNARD,
Editor of the American Journal of Education.

HARTFORD, CONN.

CIRCULAR.

THE undersigned, while laboring in the educational field since 1837, has been engaged in collecting the material for the Historical Development of Schools of every grade, and of Education generally in the United States, including Biographical Sketches of Eminent Teachers, and others who have been influential in framing or administering school systems, in founding, endowing, and improving institutions of learning, or in calling public attention to desirable changes in school-houses, apparatus, and text-books, and to better methods of school organization, instruction, and discipline. His plan has embraced particularly the following subjects:—

I. NATIONAL ALD STATE ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION, IN THE UNITED STATES, with Biographical Sketches of their Founders and Presidents.

II. THE LEGISLATION OF DIFFERENT STATES IN REFERENCE TO SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION, with an Outline of the System, and the Statistics of the Schools at the time of publication.

III. SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS AND AGENCIES OF POPULAR INSTRUCTION IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES of the United States, including Public Libraries, Museums, Galleries, Lectures, and Evening Classes.

IV. HISTORY OF THE PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, FEMALE SEMINARIES, AND HIGH SCHOOLS, which have permanent or reliable funds for their support, in the several States.

V. PROFESSIONAL AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS, such as Normal Schools and other Agencies for the Training of Teachers, Schools of Theolgy, Medicine, Law, Agriculture, Navigation, Engineering, Mining, War, or for exceptional classes—the Deaf, Blind, Imbecile, Orphans, Criminals, &c.

VI. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY—or the Teachers, Superintendents, Benefactors, and Promoters of Education in the United States.

VII. STATISTICS, and extracts from official documents, and other authentic information respecting schools of every grade at different periods.

VIII. EDUCATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY—a Catalogue by Authors and Subjects, of American Publications on the Organization, Administration, Instruction, and Discipline of Schools, and on Education generally.

IX. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE, or Contributions to the Improvement of Edifices and their Equipment, designed for Educational Purposes.

X. REVIEW of the Past and Present Condition of Schools and Education in the United States, with Suggestions for their Improvement.

Much of this material, and all the compilations and *résumé*, made by the undersigned, will be published in the American Journal of Education, and so far as there may be a call for the same, in separate treatises.

The coöperation of all persons connected with or interested in any one of the above class of schools, or in any department of education, in forwarding documents, personal memoranda, history of institutions, biographical data and sketches, or suggestions of any kind, is respectfully solicited.

HENRY BARNARD, *Hartford, Conn.*

December, 1865.

XI. FORMATION OF MORAL CHARACTER

THE MAIN OBJECT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.*

BY M. F. COWDERY,

Superintendent of Public Schools in Sandusky, Ohio.

THERE is a sentiment of very long standing with the great public, that book knowledge is the first object of school instruction, and the formation of character, if a legitimate object of school life at all, quite subordinate to the first. We desire to have this order inverted, changed end for end in the estimation of society, and in the labors of teachers. Practically it is so changed in some cases, and by some teachers, already. It is also changed in the minds of many of the parents who send to our schools—very possibly this may be now nearly the public sentiment of the city. But if there is now this union of hearts, it is time there was a union of hands; an open, public solemnization of the contract. If the formation of character is to stand first in the order of importance, and instruction in science *second*, and this by common consent of the people, teachers will be relieved of some embarrassment, and will know more definitely how to expend their strength with their pupils, if the sentiment is authoritatively recognized. It would be very easy to show that it is the true doctrine to adopt, but I trust that before this audience such a proposition needs no argument.

I have another sentiment to propose, which may or may not be received with the same unanimity. It is, that the right formation of character should be the chief end of school instruction for a child. It is simply carrying the former proposition to its logical conclusions, and yet, stated in this form, it may not receive the full assent of those who have not given the subject special attention. I offer it here this morning, however, not as a mere speculative belief, but as a practical question of the gravest importance to the school interests of the city, and if this is really the right position to be taken for common school instruction, I desire that the same may be distinctly avowed and our schools placed squarely upon it as early as practicable. I ask your careful consideration of the following statements and explanations regarding the proposed change:—First, it is not

---

* An Address to Teachers and Citizens, Sandusky, Ohio, March 3, 1866.

intended or believed that instruction from books will be any less in quantity or quality than now. It would be simply zeal without knowledge, to undertake to form a child's character without giving him something to do. It is the special province of all wise instruction to arouse the sluggish to activity, and then to keep such and all others most diligently employed. This, without reference to choice, becomes a pure necessity, if the teacher would keep temptation and wrong-doing at a safe distance from his pupils. Next, it is not contemplated that peculiarities of religious creeds shall in any manner mingle with the proposed better formation of character. While the foundation principles of integrity and purity must be drawn from the Scriptures, and can by no possibility be drawn from any other source, these may be instilled into the hearts of children without giving offense to any right-minded parent. For, surely, no father can desire to see his son grow up utterly outside of all the precepts and influences of Christianity, soon to be shipwrecked, and a nuisance to the world. And if, in the depths of his depravity and hostility to revealed truth, he *should* so wish, is there any good reason why his desire should be gratified? Our city authorities do not allow a material nuisance to be kept, even a few hours, on any man's premises. Is there any greater abridgment of civil or religious liberty in restraining a man from turning a moral nuisance loose upon community, to strew desolation and ruin in his path until an indignant public shuts him in prison, or death ends his career? It may be well further to remark, that no sudden or violent changes are contemplated in the school instruction, by the adoption of the principle proposed. While a change in the direction of the teacher's labor is expected at some time and to some extent, this change must be gradual, so that all duties and labors shall harmonize.

Next, let us thread out in practice some of the results of a general public recognition of the doctrine, that the right formation of character is the *chief* end of school instruction. In the administration of school discipline teachers meet with cases of vicious conduct, sometimes restricted to one or two pupils, and sometimes amounting to clanship and threatening to undermine the authority of the teacher, or to exert a demoralizing influence upon the school, and yet there is such a sort of *surface* civility that no investigation may be undertaken or, if undertaken, the teacher is at once reminded by the offenders, and probably by their parents, that the teacher's duty in the school-room extends simply to *giving instruction* and *keeping order*. It would be some satisfaction at least, in such cases, that the teacher should be able to point to well-settled authority to probe all

disorderly conduct to the bottom, and when sullen and sympathizing witnesses are asked to give information, that they shall not evade the command by any direct or indirect appeal to want of rightful authority of the teacher to demand his testimony. Make *character* the *chief end* of school instruction, and the rights and duties of all parties become clear in such cases.

Again, let us see how our teachers and grades of schools would stand in relation to each other, under the proposed new arrangement. If the time shall ever come when there shall be any marked success in building up strength and solidity of character, that work must be commenced in the primary school, and the teacher must enter her school-room with the clear and explicit understanding that this is to be the first and chief end of all her labors, and all other things subordinate. She must clearly understand that the first great work for the child *must* be done in her school-room. That it will be a sad and sorrowful task for the teacher in the grade above, to find two years lost, *far worse than lost*, to the child in its moral training. All this must not only be distinctly understood as a matter of *theory*, but it must enter into all her plans of labor in the school-room, and into all her convictions of duty and usefulness for this world. And she must hold herself responsible, other teachers must hold her responsible, and the public must hold her responsible, that all that the circumstances will allow her to do for the right training of her pupils must be done.

But how shall such work be commenced? First, it would be necessary for the teacher, as early and as rapidly as possible, to become personally and intimately acquainted with each pupil. The family circumstances and the family discipline at home should, as far as possible, be at once understood. Then the habits of the child, its health, its peculiar disposition, its associates *in* school and *out* of school, should be inquired into, so that, besides all general methods employed to make children dutiful, the teacher can treat each individual pupil as its case may require. Using the general methods now common in our schools, for interesting all the children in right conduct, more frequently, and more faithfully and spiritedly, will be the first work to be done. Very probably, in a school of fifty scholars, there might be groups of six to ten that might need similar words of reproof or encouragement, by themselves; and again, half that number might require specific instruction of another sort.

Lastly, *each individual* pupil should be a subject of *special study* by the teacher, for each will probably need specific instruction of some sort, if not for any present wrong-doing, then to fortify against

temptation in the future. But in what shall the instruction consist? First, the child should be taught unconditional submission to all proper authority; and whether there seems to be any present necessity for the lesson or not, it should be so thoroughly, so frequently, and so faithfully taught, that there never can be any *present necessity* for teaching it.

Next, teach every little child the great law of *kindness*. Do not be satisfied because you see children so naturally kind to each other in their happy hours and childish sports. This is only an indication that you, primary teachers, have an easy and delightful duty before you. But just here, my dear friends, suffer me especially to admonish you, that you can not over-estimate the importance—the solemnity rather—of your position. You must assume that this out-gushing kindness of childhood may be matured into a strong, over-ruling principle, or it may fade into uncertain impulses, just as you shall permit its direction to run. You must labor with your pupils and for them, as if deliverance from a life of savage selfishness and cruelty depended wholly upon your exertions. Do not let an unkind word be uttered in your school-room or on your playgrounds; watch, and treat appropriately, all angry looks, and while, negatively, you are suppressing every thing contrary to the law of love, do all you can positively to inculcate it; suggest to them little modes of really doing kind things to each other. And do not grow weary in doing this. Keep doing yourself, and keep your children doing. Never, for a moment, suppose that your work is an insignificant one. You are teaching a great law, the law of love, the law of Heaven; joyfully and lovingly should you do this noble work.

Still farther on, teach children kindness to the unfortunate, to the stranger, to animals, in brief on this point, get as much of *heaven upon earth* into your school-rooms as you possibly can. And there is perfect truthfulness, and perfect honesty, and heroic courage to do right, to be instilled thoroughly into these little minds. And then there are some ugly wild beasts at your door to be watched, lest they devour your tender lambs—such as profanity and vulgarity. For character is first in favor now, character is to be "king" henceforth, you remember, and nothing that would harm or mar its beauty must be allowed to enter. These miniature men and women must soon go from your instruction to the next teacher above, and, still retaining their artlessness and innocence, you must pass them up, perfect little patterns of propriety, perfect little heroes for the truth and for right.

This is a slight sketch of the change of labor and relations for a

single grade. It would, of course, be understood that the successive grades above should be responsible, *first*, for securely retaining all that had been acquired through such watchfulness and faithfulness, in the school below. And here grave responsibilities open upon us. For, with each ascending grade, the advancing age of the pupil requires a new exertion of restraining and controlling power to hold him steadfastly in the paths of uprightness.* And if this *is not done*, what shall be said of the teacher or grade where the failure was made? If, after the work in the lower grades had been faithfully, skillfully, nobly done, such a calamity should occur midway between the Primary and High School, what a shock would thereby be given to our system! What breaking of arteries or snapping of nerves would produce such a sensation? How could society be compensated for such losses? How could the teachers of the grades below find consolation for their lost labor and treasures? When the schools below fail to give each their proper quantity and quality of instruction in the sciences, the schools above are seriously and unjustly embarrassed by the culpable neglect. But what shall be thought of offering to the higher grades *damaged characters* and corrupting influences? And if the grand failure should occur at the High School—if, standing at the head of the system, it should have low conceptions of its position or its duties, or, still further, knowing its responsibilities, it should fail to meet them, and the good principles which had been so assiduously, so tenderly, through long years, *so faithfully* inwrought, be there dissipated, scattered to the four winds of heaven, *how* should the loss be estimated? If it were the sentiment of our people, that the crowning excellence of our free public school system was to prepare noble men and women for our country and the world, how keenly would the disappointment be felt if there should be found want of skill, want of profound sense of obligation,—want of complete and triumphant success in the particular department where all these qualities were demanded in the highest perfection!

I have hastily glanced at a few points of advantage and changes of relations among our school grades and teachers, which the proposed end of school instruction would involve. There are also some other important relations to be stated, some other advantages to be gained, and also some further objections to be met. The more full discussion of these topics may be given when it shall seem to be demanded.

It will be seen that I am now seeking *a new contract*, or rather *new conditions* to a former contract, between teachers and the public.

To be binding as an agreement they must, of course, receive the assent of both parties. I have no authority for saying that they will be entirely acceptable to either. I suspect teachers will feel a reluctance to assume such new responsibilities, not from any want of right disposition, but from the real magnitude of the undertaking, and from a painful consciousness of want of the necessary preparation and power to do such work. Truly, teachers, the right formation of character for this generation of the children of our city is an enterprise full of difficulties and discouragements, and you *must have power*, directing, controlling power, or you can do nothing of this labor. If you are to stand by the *side* of the parent, in *place of the parent*, often even *above the parent*, in the education of his children, you must have *first* the power which genuine affection gives. Children delight in an atmosphere of affection. They would instinctively exchange houses of marble for cabins of logs or clay, to dwell with hearts as gentle and loving as their own. Sparkling gems, or the richest attire, would be worthless to them as pebbles or rags, if counted against a mother's, or sister's, or brother's love. It is fixed in the deep counsels of Infinite Wisdom, that children shall be led by affection, be taught early obedience to duty, not through reasoning faculties, just feebly dawning, but through the affections now glowing in full sunlight, and there must be no thought of evasion of this divine law. Teachers, as well as parents, then, *must love children*. But surely, every body must love, or *can learn to love*, little children. And in loving them *wisely* and well, we may fashion their hearts, and habits, and tempers after any model we will. Within certain limits, and for certain ends, *knowledge* is power to the teacher in forming character, as well as developing the intellect. If you need more of such power, the world of science and the whole field of history are open to you. Take as much as you need or as you please.

Again, right is might, truth is might, and the soft-haired boy, as well as the gray-haired man, must bow to their power. Teach the child or the young man the letter and spirit of the golden rule; bury deep in his heart the great principle of love to God and love to man, and a power mightier than the silent forces of creation continually operates to ameliorate his nature and guide his wayward steps. Explain, patiently and gently, how the Eternal Father loves and approves thoughts and deeds of kindness, even in children, and teach him, by skillful modes of illustration, how He hates, with an infinite, eternal hatred, all forms of oppression, and no future arguments, however crafty or profound, can dislodge this conviction from

his heart. Bring to his full comprehension, often and faithfully, the truth, that for all his wrong-doing, both open and secret, conscience will be a swift witness of his guilt, and for all this guilt there must be accountability, and you throw around him a restraining power such as no human wisdom can devise. For truth is mighty, far mightier than all other instrumentalities that mortals are permitted to wield, and in its judicious employment we may proceed with the same confidence in laying the foundations of character that we look for mental development to follow mental exertion, or the seasons to go and return, or the green herbage to spring up under the genial sunshine.

Again, purity, personal purity of heart and life, is power—power perhaps slightly understood and appreciated in this life, yet ever silently, under Providence, working out the grandest and noblest results. Faith, true Christian faith, is power, giving to the little child or the feeble invalid a might which the strongest intellect may not possess. And still further, daily communion with the Source of all Power imparts to the feeblest intellect attributes of sovereignty. How often, by this means, does the humblest mortal "move the hand that rules the world!" How seeming impossibilities become pleasant pastimes under the friendly direction of an omnipotent guide! How, by communion with the High and Holy One, have the weak surpassed the wise in wisdom, or the keenest trials ended in songs of triumph! That slave-prince, Joseph, was mightier than all the monarchs of Egypt, because he was in habitual communion with the Sovereign of all Sovereigns; because the Eternal Jehovah was his daily refuge, and underneath him were the Everlasting Arms. There was no "smell of fire" on the garments of those three Jewish captives who were thrown into the "burning fiery furnace," because the "form of the Fourth" was there, and the "*form of the Fourth*" was there because His infinite power and loving presence had been invoked for this hour of terrible ordeal.

Self-denial is power. Self-sacrificing affection is power—power in the lowliest stations of life, and power in the most exalted, power at the humblest fireside, and power among the nations of the earth. Observe how it gives the mother her irresistible influence and her imperishable memory in the family circle. How it gives the missionary respect and kind regards among brutalized and depraved tribes of men all unused to words of kindness. How it every where subdues the coarsest natures and chastens and refines the gentlest hearts. *Self-sacrificing affection!* What enmity or depravity *can it not* conquer? How surely, in God's good time, it must change

the face of the world? How its brightest manifestation eighteen hundred years ago shines clearer and stronger through the lapse of centuries! How an innocent, unresisting personage, by suffering a death of terrible anguish, singly for the good of others, has awakened emotions never before excited in this world, and constrained allegiance to which earth and time can fix no bounds.

But *humility* too is power, patience is power—wonderful power to the teacher. In short, every Christian grace and virtue is power. *Be a thoroughly good man or a good woman* and your whole life shall be a *life of power.* Your words, your examples, your teachings, shall be powerful for good. And if to Christian virtues and graces you add an earnest purpose to fashion youthful character after celestial models, your efforts can *by no possibility* be in vain.

If, after proper consultation and reflection, our citizens decide to charge you with the duty of laying the foundations of integrity and uprightness more deeply and strongly with the children than heretofore, do not, my dear friends, shrink from the work on account of its difficulties or its magnitude. Modestly, hopefully, accept the trust. Take these children, *all of them*, the rich man's and the poor man's, lovingly to your hearts, and train them for God and our country. The *end* of the labor you nor I may ever live to see. The *beginning* only is for us and in prayerfully and perseveringly beginning it you shall find "strength equal to your day." With an earnest purpose to be successful, you shall find difficulties vanish before you like mists before the morning sunshine. My sister, my brother, you shall not meet these solemn responsibilities single-handed and alone. You shall not give your manly strength, nor your health and womanly grace and beauty, to this great public service, while others may revel in freedom and sunshine, without a full equivalent. Good men and women will sympathize with you and encourage you. Fathers and mothers will bless you. Children, many children, shall love and honor you. Angelic spirits shall look lovingly, joyfully, upon your labors, from the abodes above. The blessed Redeemer shall be ever at your side—nearer than all earthly friends. The Infinite Father himself shall shower his blessings upon you, and hereafter, in the presence of the countless millions who shall stand before Him, he shall say to each of you, "Well done, good and faithful servant, enter thou into the joy of the Lord."

XII. HOME AND SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE.

Fourth Article.

HOME AND SCHOOL TRAINING IN OLD HADDAM, CONN.

REV. THOMAS BRAINERD, D. D., in his interesting "Life of John Brainerd, the brother of David Brainerd, and his successor as Missionary to the Indians of New Jersey," * has devoted a chapter to the influences, local, domestic, school, and religious, under which the childhood and youth of the brothers, David and John Brainerd, were trained. They were sons of Hon. Hezekiah Brainerd, of Haddam, Conn., a gentleman of education and high official position, a Representative to the General Assembly and Speaker of the House of Representatives, and a member of the Council or Senate. Their mother was Dorothy Hobart, and at the time of the marriage the widow of Daniel Mason, by whom she had one son, Jeremiah Mason, who was the grandfather of Jeremiah Mason,† the friend and professional rival of Daniel Webster. She was the daughter of a clergyman and a woman of fine intellect and ardent piety. David Brainerd was born in 1718 and John Brainerd in 1720, and were nurtured with five older children under the stern, but in some respects wholesome rule and influences of Connecticut Puritanism in school, church, and state, as it was one hundred years ago. Of the inherited constitutional bias, moral and intellectual, of the ancestors of the Brainerds, as exemplified in the character and career of their descendants, the biographer of John is content to refer to the lives of their descendants—to their profound fear and love of God, to their vigorous intellects, their power of will, and their capacity of endurance and action. Of one of the descendants of the mother, in the line of the Masons, Dr. Brainerd cites the language of Rufus

---

* Life of John Brainerd, &c. By Rev. Thomas Brainerd, D. D. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Publication Committee. 1865.

† Jeremiah Mason, the stepson of Hon. Hezekiah Brainerd, was only six months old when his father died, and was subject to the same Puritan training to which Hon. Hezekiah Brainerd subjected his own children—and in those days the head of the house "looked after the boys" and knew when they "were out," and where they spent their evenings. Tradition reports that when Jeremiah was past twenty years of age, on coming home somewhat late Mr. Brainerd asked him, "Where have you been so late at night?" "I have been to see Mary Clark." "Oh! very well," answered the stepfather, "go to bed." Jeremiah was married to Mary Clark, May 24, 1727.

Choate at a meeting of the Suffolk County Bar on the death of Hon. Jeremiah Mason, in 1848.

Mr. Mason was so extraordinary a person; his powers of mind were not only so vast, but so peculiar; his character and influence were so weighty, as well as good; he filled for so many years so conspicuous a place in the profession of the law, in public life, and in intercourse with those who gave immediate direction to public affairs, that it appears most fit, if it were practicable, that we should attempt to record somewhat permanently and completely our appreciation of him, and to convey it to others, who knew him less perfectly and less recently than ourselves. It seems to me that one of the very few greatest men whom this country has produced; a statesman among the foremost in a senate of which King and Giles, in the fullness of their strength and fame, were members; a jurist who would have filled the seat of Marshall, as Marshall filled it; of whom it may be said that, without ever holding a judicial station, he was the author and finisher of the jurisprudence of a State; one whose intellect, wisdom, and uprightness gave him a control over the opinions of all the circles in which he lived and acted, of which we shall scarcely see another example, and for which this generation and the country are the better to-day, such seems to me to have been the man who has just gone down to a timely grave. I rejoice to know that the eighty-first year of his life found his marvelous faculties wholly unimpaired—"No pale gradations quenched that ray." Down to the hour when the appointed shock, his first sickness, struck him, as it might seem, in a moment, from among the living, he was ever his great and former self.

He is dead; and, though here and there a kindred mind—here and there, rarer still, a coeval mind—survives, he has left no one beyond his immediate blood and race who in the least degree resembles him.

Of the "school of locality," its traditions and legends, its beauty and mysteries, in which the Brainerds were educated, the Rev. Professor Parke, of Andover Theological Seminary, speaks truthfully and graphically in his memoir of Dr. Emmons, who was born and nurtured within the limits of Old Haddam.

Although Dr. Emmons wrote but little concerning the place of his birth, he thought much of it. In his later age he visited and revisited his old home, with a childlike joy that the lines had fallen to him in so pleasant a place. His character was doubtless affected in some degree by the natural scenery and the early traditions of the township in which he was trained. The rock-bound hills of his native parish seem well fitted to nurture his habits of digging among the hard-twisted themes of theology. For many years his father lived on the very verge of a precipice, near a high and sharp ledge of rocks, at the foot of which flowed a swift brook. The intervening meadows, through which flowed the limpid and rapid streams, "the grate river" which the early records of the town celebrate as enriching its borders, the thrilling legends in regard to the Indian tribes who were attracted to the fishing-brooks and hunting-forests of the town, were not without their effect upon him, schooled though he was in the stern processes of metaphysics. He knew what was meant by a slight dash of poetic superstition. He *felt* what an artist would have *expressed*. His mind was silently molded by that which a man of more imaginative tendencies would have celebrated in song.

The appropriate influence of the scenes in this "hill country" of Connecticut has been well developed by the poet Brainerd. It was with his eye on the romantic townships of Old Haddam and East Haddam that he indited his poem on the Connecticut river, the stream of his sleeping fathers, along whose noble shores,

The tall steeple shines
At mid-day higher than the "mountain pines."

Dark as the frost-nipped leaves that strewed the ground
The Indian hunter here his shelter found;
Here cut his bow and shaped his arrows true,
Here built his wigwam and his bark canoe;
Speared the quick salmon leaping up the fall,
And slew the deer without the rifle ball.

The Salmon river, so called from the fish that once abounded in it, enters into the Connecticut at East Haddam. It was the favorite retreat of the poet Brainerd, as its clear waters had been for ages the chosen resort of the angler, and its wooded banks had been the home of the Indian huntsman. Brainerd sings of this river:—

There's much in its wild history that teems
With all that's superstitious, and that seems
To match our fancy and eke out our dreams
In that small brook.

Here Phillip came and Miantomino,
And asked about their fortunes, long ago.
As Saul to Endor, that her witch might show
Old Samuel.

Such are the tales they tell. 'Tis hard to rhyme
About a little and unnoticed stream
That few have heard of, but it is a theme
I chance to love;

And one day I may tune my rye-straw reed,
And whistle to the note of many a deed
Done on this river, which, if there be need,
I'll try to prove.

The poem of Brainerd on "The Black Fox of Salmon River" and also the one entitled "Matchit Moodus," give us fine specimens of the legends which in the young days of Emmons were familiar to the natives of East Haddam. With regard to the Matchit Moodus Rev. Dr. Field, in a "History of the Towns of Haddam and East Haddam," remarks:—

A large tribe [of Indians] inhabited East Haddam, which they called Machemoodus, or the place of noises; from the noises or earthquakes which had been heard there, and which have continued to the present time. These Indians were of a fierce and wretched character, remarkable for pawpaws and the worship of evil spirits. The noises from the earth, regarded as the voice of their god, confirmed them in their monstrous notions of religion. An old Indian being asked the reason of the noises said, "The Indian's God was very angry because the Englishman's God came there!"

Those noises in East Haddam which caught the attention of the natives were not disregarded by the first settlers and their associates nor have they been

disregarded by later generations. Seventy or eighty years ago, in consequence of their greater frequency and violence, they gained the attention of the neighboring towns, and became the subject of inquiry and discussion among the learned and inquisitive throughout the State.

Professor Parke, in continuation, says:—

The gazetteers of the day notice the fisheries, the navigation, the manufacturing establishments, the granite quarries, of the tract of country once called Haddam; but they fail to herald its real glory. Dr. Emmons was wont to rejoice that his native township was distinguished for its Puritan spirit. The hard soil, the bracing air, the pure waters of New England, have done much in forming its peculiar character; but the religious habits of its fathers have done more. They have started an influence which will continue to flow onward, and will be felt even where it is not recognized. The Old Haddam settlement may be regarded as a representative region. It represents that part of our land which, like ancient Immidia, may be called "arida matrix leonum." It exhibits the power which has been exerted over this entire country by our small Puritan communities. It illustrates the importance of sustaining with augmented vigor the schools and churches in these rural districts which have sent forth such a penetrating energy through the world. It is estimated that Deacon Daniel Brainerd, the grandfather of David and one of the original proprietors of Haddam, has had more than thirty-three thousand descendants. Many of them have attained high distinction in Church and State. Among the natives of the region formerly called Haddam, who have been liberally educated, are David Brainerd, who alone gives importance to a community; Nehemiah Brainerd, a pastor in Eastbury, [Glastenbury,] Connecticut, who was a classical instructor of David; his younger brother, John Brainerd, an eminent minister, who succeeded his brother David in the Indian mission and was for twenty-six years a trustee of Princeton College; Nathaniel Emmons; Edward Dorr Griffin, Professor at Andover and President of Williams College; his brother also, George G. Griffin, a noted lawyer and theological writer in New York City; Jeremiah Gates Brainerd, a judge of the Superior Court of Connecticut and the father of John Gardiner Calkins Brainerd, "the gentler poet of the gentle stream;" James Brainerd Taylor, and other men of no inferior note among the living as well as the dead, [including over thirty ministers.]

As the maternal grandfather of David Brainerd was the minister of Haddam for twenty-four years; as the brother-in-law of David Brainerd, Mr. Phineas Fisk, the eminent tutor, was pastor of the same old church for the same number of years; as the father of David Brainerd was a man eminent for his gifts; and as there have been numerous intermarriages between the Brainerds and the other ancient families of that region, it is reasonable to believe that the household to which this missionary belonged has left a deep, decided impress upon all the townships into which Old Haddam is now divided.

The scenery of East Haddam was calculated to nourish solitary musing, a faith in the supernatural, and awe of God, which the Home and School Training that prevailed one hundred years ago was calculated to deepen and foster. Rev. Dr. Thomas Brainerd thus describes this training:—

A boy was early taught a profound respect for his parents, teachers, and guardians, and implicit, prompt obedience. If he undertook to rebel, "his will was broken" by persistent and adequate punishment. He was accustomed every morning and evening to bow at the family altar; and the Bible was his ordinary reading-book in school. He was never allowed to close his eyes in sleep without prayer on his pillow. At a sufficient age, no caprice, slight illness, nor any condition of roads or weather, was allowed to detain him from church. In the sanctuary he was required to be grave, strictly attentive, and able on his return at least to give the text. From sundown Saturday evening until the Sabbath sunset his sports were all suspended, and all secular reading laid aside; while the Bible, New England Primer, Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, Baxter's Saints' Rest, etc., were commended to his ready attention and cheerfully pored over.

He was taught that his blessings were abundant and undeserved, his evils relatively few and merited, and that he was not only bound to contentment but gratitude. He was taught that time was a talent to be always to be improved; that industry was a cardinal virtue, and laziness the worst form of original sin. Hence he must rise early and make himself useful before he went to school; must be diligent there in study, and be promptly home to do "*chores*" at evening. His whole time out of school must be filled up by some service, such as bringing in fuel for the day, cutting potatoes for the sheep, feeding the swine, watering the horses, picking the berries, gathering the vegetables, spooling the yarn. He was expected never to be reluctant, and not often tired.

He was taught that it was a sin to find fault with his meals, his apparel, his tasks, or his lot in life. Labor he was not allowed to regard as a burden, nor abstinence from any improper indulgence as a hardship.

His clothes, woolen and linen, for summer and winter, were mostly spun, woven, and made up by his mother and sisters at home; and as he saw the whole laborious process of their fabrication, he was jubilant and grateful for two suits, with bright buttons, a year. Rents were carefully closed and holes patched in the "every day" dress, and the Sabbath dress always kept new and fresh.

He was expected early to have the "stops and marks," the "abbreviations," the "multiplication table," the "Ten Commandments," the "Lord's Prayer," and the "Shorter Catechism," at his tongue's end.

Courtesy was enjoined as a duty. He must be silent among his superiors. If addressed by older persons, he must respond with a bow. He was to bow as he entered and left the school, and bow to every man or woman, old or young, rich or poor, black or white, whom he met on the road. Special punishment was visited on him if he failed to show respect to the aged, the poor, the colored, or to any persons whatever whom God had visited with infirmities. He was thus taught to stand in awe of the rights of humanity.

Honesty was urged as a religious duty, and unpaid debts were represented as infamy. He was allowed to be sharp at a bargain, to shudder at dependence, but still to prefer poverty to deception or fraud. His industry was not urged by poverty but by duty. Those who imposed upon him early responsibility and restraint led the way by their example, and commended this example by the prosperity of their fortunes and the respectability of their position as the result of these virtues. He felt that they governed and restrained him for his good, and not their own.

He learned to identify himself with the interests he was set to promote. He claimed every acre of his father's ample farm, and every horse and ox and cow and sheep became constructively his, and he had a name for each. The waving harvests, the garnered sheaves, the gathered fruits, were all his own. And besides these, he had his individual treasures. He knew every trout-hole in the streams; he was great in building dams, snaring rabbits, trapping squirrels, and gathering chestnuts and walnuts for winter store. Days of election, training, thanksgiving, and school intermissions, were bright spots in his life. His long winter evenings, made cheerful by sparkling fires within and cold, clear skies and ice-crusted plains and frozen streams for his sled and skates, were full of enjoyment. And then he was loved by those whom he could respect, and cheered by that future for which he was being prepared. Religion he was taught to regard as a necessity and luxury as well as duty. He was daily brought into contemplation of the Infinite, and made to regard himself as ever on the brink of an endless being. With a deep sense of obligation, a keen, sensitive conscience, and a tender heart, the great truths of religion appeared in his eye as sublime, awful, practical realities, compared with which earth was nothing. Thus he was made brave before men for the right, while he lay in the dust before God.

Such was Haddam training one hundred years ago. Some may lift their hands in horror at this picture; but it was a process which made moral heroes. It exhibited a society in which wealth existed without arrogance; labor without degradation; and a piety which, by its energy and martyr-endurance, could shake the world.

We are not to suppose that the boyhood of John Brainerd under these influences was gloomy or joyless; far from it. Its activity was bliss; its growth was a spring of life; its achievements were victories. Each day garnered some benefit; and rising life, marked by successive accumulations, left a smile on the conscience and bright and reasonable hopes for the future.

We might have desired that this Puritan training had left childhood a little larger indulgence; had looked with interest at present enjoyment as well as at future good; had smiled a little more lovingly on the innocent gambols, the ringing laughter, the irrepressible mirth of boyhood; and had frowned less severely on imperfections clinging to human nature itself. We might think that, by insisting too much on obligation and too little on privilege; too much on the law and too little on the gospel; too much on the severity and too little on the goodness of the Deity, the conscience may have been stimulated at the expense of the affections, and men fitted for another world at an unnecessary sacrifice of their amiability and happiness in the present life.

But in leaving this Puritan training, the world "has gone farther and fared worse." To repress the iniquity of the age and land, to save our young men for themselves, their country and their God, childhood's caprices and sneering at strict Sabbaths, but by going back to many of the modes which gave to the world such men as John Hampden, William Bradford, Jonathan Edwards, Timothy Dwight, and David and John Brainerd.

XIII. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

CONTENTS.

Page.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS AND STATISTICS, ... 5

Area—Population—Religions—Nationalities of the Austrian Empire, ... 6

I. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND INSTRUCTION, ... 8

I. Historical Development, ... 8

Reactionary Movement against Luther's Reformation, ... 8

Brotherhood of Christian Instruction—Piartists—Jesuits, ... 8

Maria Theresa—Felbiger—Kindermann—Count Firmian, ... 9

Board of Education for Upper and Lower Austria—State Board of Education in 1774, 9

Joseph II.—Baron von Swieten—J. A. Gall, ... 12

Toleration Charter of 1781—Jews of Bohemia—Socratic System, ... 13

Normal School Certificate—Singing—Industrial Instruction—Corporal Punishment, ... 13

Leopold II.—Martini—Teachers' Associations—Education Section, ... 14

Emperor Francis—Count Rottenham—Restriction on Teachers, ... 14

Board of Educational Reform—Constitution of the German Schools, ... 15

Spendou—School Referee—Competitive Examinations—Branch Schools, ... 16

School System for Lombardo-Venitian Kingdom—Military Frontier, ... 17

Ferdinand I.—Normal School for Female Teachers at Vienna, ... 17

Francis Joseph I.—Special Ministry of Public Instruction, ... 18

Baron von Feuchtersleben—Schools made Free by Taxation, ... 19

Provincial Normal (Model) Schools, and Teachers' Seminary—and School Journals, .. 19

Administration of Baron von Helfert—Pensions for Teachers—Concordat with the Pope, 21

II. Existing System and Condition of Elementary Schools, ... 22

1. Classification of Schools—Trivial Schools—High Schools, ... 22

Regular and Branch—Parochial—Normal or Model High School, ... 24

2, 3. Sectarian and National Characteristics of the Public School, ... 24

4 Compulsory Attendance, ... 24

5. Support of Schools—Local Taxation—Provincial Aid—National Grant, ... 25

6. Superintendence—Ecclesiastical and Secular—Parochial, Provincial, and Imperial, 26

7. School Buildings, with Residence for Teacher, ... 28

8. Grades of Teachers—Under Teacher—Director—Professor—Catechist, ... 29

9, 10. Election of Teachers and their Salaries—Church Chorister, ... 29

11, 12. Removal and Dismissal of Teachers—Pensions, ... 32

13. Internal Classification of Schools, ... 338

14. Monthly Conferences of Teachers of the same School, District, and Province, ... 338

15, 16. Terms, and Daily Sessions—Distribution of Studies, ... 339

17. Text-books and Apparatus—School Library, ... 340

18, 19. Instruction in Language and other Subjects, ... 340

20, 21. Object Teaching—Industrial Instruction, ... 341

22. Discipline—Moral and Religious Life—Rewards—Punishments, ... 341

23. Tuition Fees—Various Practices, ... 342

24, 25. Regularity of Attendance—Semi-annual and Final Examinations, ... 342

26. Private Schools—Day and Boarding-Schools—Family Instruction, ... 343

27. Adult Schools and Instruction Obligatory, ... 343

28. Burgher Schools for Tradesmen and Operatives, ... 344

29. Teachers' Seminaries for Trivial and High Schools, ... 345

30. Training of Female Teachers and Teachers for Burgher Schools, ... 346

31. Government Book Publishing House, ... 347

III. Results and Defects of Elementary Schools, ... 348

Table—Statistics of Elementary Schools in 1861, ... 348

Deficiences of Schools, Teachers, and Studies, ... 349

12. *Pensions.*—The teachers of trivial and parochial high schools receive no pensions, but in case of incapacity from old age or sickness and the appointment of an assistant, they are assured of at least the minimum salary, and the more deserving teachers may be allowed even the full amount of their previous incomes. If the teacher has served from three to ten years at the time of his death, the widow receives from the community annually three-fourths of a so-called "poor-house allowance." For a shorter period she can only claim an equitable portion of the revenues of the school for the current year, but for a longer service an entire allowance ($25) is granted and each child receives one-fourth as much annually until fifteen years of age. The deficiency of provision for the wants of veteran teachers has led to the formation of numerous pension societies, and in Vienna some special appropriations are made for their benefit. High school teachers and their families have like rights with State officials to pensions, and their children, if not more than three in number, are provided with instruction to the age of eighteen.

13. *School Classes.*—High schools are organized into four classes; trivial schools have three classes if the number of school apartments and teachers permits, which are parallel with the lower classes of the high school, so that scholars should be prepared to pass from the third class of the one to the fourth of the other. Even where the classes are less the same progress is sought to be attained. The formation of sub-classes is not permitted, but over-crowded classes may be arranged in parallel divisions where practicable. The number of scholars in a single apartment is not definitely limited, but 80–100 is usually considered a maximum. In the normal schools this maximum can not be exceeded and in the Vienna schools every class that numbers more than eighty must be divided. In trivial and parochial high schools each class is assigned wholly to its own teacher or under-teacher, who advances with his pupils through all the classes, or as far as he is capable of going. He has also to be present at the giving of religious instruction and to review with his class the instruction given. In the high schools each teacher has that class assigned to him for which he is best qualified. The director is always obliged to take part in the duties of instruction.

14. *Teachers' Conferences.*—To secure regularity and uniformity of progress and instruction the director or principal of every high school meets in conference with all his teachers at least once a month. For the purpose also of enlarging the sphere of influence of the more skillful teachers it is made the duty of the district superintendent to call quarterly conventions of all the teachers and under-teachers of his district, and conventions of teachers from different districts may be held with the consent of the provincial authorities. The superintendent presides in person or by deputy, subjects of discussion are designated previously, and written exercises are required. Annual reports of these meetings are made to the Common School Inspector and by him to the Department. These conferences are the result of an ordinance of 1848, which met with much

opposition but is now in most successful operation. In Bukowina, Venice, and the Frontier none have as yet been held, but in the remaining provinces they meet on an average twice a year in each district.

15. *Terms; Time of Instruction.*—A pupil may enter a trivial school at the beginning or close of the first half-year, but admission to a high school is generally permitted only at the commencement of the year. The schools of the provincial capitals and the high schools commence the school-year simultaneously with the gymnasiums and real schools and continue eleven months. The four weeks of vacation in the country schools are variously distributed as the occupations of the inhabitants make it most desirable. No schools are kept upon church festival days, and the director of a high school may grant four additional holidays during the year. When attendance upon a country school is unavoidably interrupted on the part of many of the pupils, the school must still be kept open for such children as are able to be present, and attendance upon certain days of the week is, as far as possible, obligatory upon all the children. Instruction is generally given both forenoon and afternoon, (8–10 A. M., and 1–3 P. M., or in the cities 2–4 P. M.,) with two afternoons in the week free. Where but a half-day school is kept, three hours in the forenoon are given to the older children and two hours to the younger. In the high schools the number of hours may be increased to twenty-four in the week, or even more, the whole of Thursday or two afternoons being also free. In Jewish schools, where instruction is given in Hebrew, the number of hours is often much greater.

16. *Distribution of Studies.*—There is no uniform scheme of studies followed in the trivial schools, each teacher being guided by the customs and wants of his locality. In the high schools, while there is much diversity, yet generally, in the first class, two hours each week are given to religious instruction, three to writing, the same to arithmetic, and twelve to instruction in language; in the second and third classes, three hours each to religion and writing, four to arithmetic, and ten to language; and in the fourth class, four hours to religion and arithmetic, three to writing, and nine to language.

17. *Text-books and Apparatus.*—There can be no departure in either the trivial or high schools from the use of the books prescribed by the State Department. The books for religious instruction are appointed by the higher ecclesiastical authorities; reading-books, primers, and the like, must be approved by them as containing nothing opposed to the teachings of the Church, and in regard to text-books in other branches they can at any time object to their proposed introduction. The Jewish schools use in general the same books, though special editions of the readers, &c., are prepared for them. Much greater attention has been paid of late years to the introduction of school apparatus and other means of instruction, especially in arithmetic, natural history, and geography. School libraries are dependent upon the voluntary contributions of the communities and individual friends of education. In some of the provinces

they have increased very rapidly—as in Bohemia, from 644 libraries containing 95,000 volumes to over 900, with 153,442 volumes, within ten years.

18. *Instruction in Language.*—The native language is the prominent subject of study in the common school. The method of teaching reading is left, to a great extent, to the choice of the teacher. With the older teachers, and in crowded schools where the attendance is very irregular, the old alphabet method is not forbidden; at the normal schools, on the other hand, the vocalizing or syllabic method (*Lautir-methode*) is preferred, while the method of teaching by writing (*Schreiblese-methode*) has been introduced in many places. More advanced instruction is given practically, rather than by abstract rules—by exercises in the use of language and in grammar in connection with the reading lessons, and by the transcription of what has been committed to memory, or read or repeated before the school. Upon leaving the high school it is required that the pupil shall be able to thoroughly understand whatever he reads, that he be well informed respecting the structure of the sentence, and be skilled in descriptive composition and narration, letter-writing, and the drawing up of ordinary business papers. For instruction in grammar the primer, of course, gives no aid whatever, and the grammatical appendix of the first and second reading-books is intended only as a brief compend for the ready reference of the teacher in his practical exercises. The grammar which accompanies the third reader gives a thorough knowledge of etymology and syntax, upon a plan suited to the character of the school, but designed to facilitate the learning of foreign languages and following the terminology that is employed in the gymnasiums and real schools.

A second language can be introduced generally as a medium of instruction only where the children are already well acquainted with its use and after the first difficulties of reading have been overcome, so that farther instruction may be carried on uniformly in both languages. Where the use of the second language is less general, its introduction depends upon the wishes and necessities of the population, commences in the second or early in the third class, and instruction is carried so far that in the fourth class some branch of study is conducted in it. In one or the other of these ways the German language is taught in many schools, and the same is true of the Italian in the Littorale and Dalmatia. In the high schools German forms an essential part of instruction throughout the course. A third language is but very rarely introduced and only where three nationalities are in constant intercourse. Instruction in Latin or in a foreign language may be given in the highest class, but only as an optional. In the Jewish schools there is often a Hebrew instructor, by whom the children are taught to read and translate that language.

19. *Instruction in Other Branches.*—Writing is taught by means of copy-sheets. The attempted introduction into the lower classes of a system of writing-books with copies prefixed provoked much opposition

and discussion. In the trivial schools the object sought is simply to secure fair penmanship and correct orthography. In the highest class the exercises are continued in running and Latin script and the principles of orthography are taught with their application to the more common foreign words. In arithmetic the scholars make use only of exercise books. Mental arithmetic receives the chief attention in the lower classes and is continued through the course. Decimal arithmetic, a knowledge of which is made now almost indispensable by the new system of currency, is generally introduced, and in the upper class of the high school the doctrines of denominate numbers are thoroughly taught and a practical knowledge given of ratio and proportion. In all classes two half-hours per week are given to vocal music, including the more usual church hymns and popular songs. Artistic instruction in music can be given only out of the ordinary school hours. Drawing is introduced in the fourth class and is often brought in as a means of instruction in other branches. Gymnastics have recently become looked upon as an indispensable part of public instruction, and in the construction of school buildings care is taken to provide suitable rooms for the purpose. The city of Vienna has taken the lead and provided for the gradual erection of gymnastic halls in connection with every one of its schools, while the "*Turnverein*" have taken measures to secure the proper training of the teachers. Instruction is gratuitous and organized upon the systems of Jahn and Spiess.

20. *Object Teaching.*—No special hours are given to this, but from the first the words and lessons of the primer, and everyday objects and occurrences, are made the subjects of explanation and illustration and a means of training the understanding and powers of observation of the children, and throughout the course, in the high school especially, the reading lessons are so conducted as to give the pupils a practical knowledge of natural objects and of their native land.

21. *Industrial Instruction.*—Instruction in needle work and like feminine employments is usual in the female schools and in the female classes of the mixed schools, but is not made obligatory and is not so uniformly pursued as other branches. It is not gratuitous except to the poor and in the industrial schools of the religious corporations and ladies' societies. In the country frequent opportunities occur to direct attention to various agricultural operations and to excite a love and taste for them. Where there are orchards the older pupils are instructed in their care, and extra hours may be given to instruction in the care of mulberry trees, grape-vines, bees, &c.

22. *Discipline.*—Education, as distinct from instruction, is regarded as the prime object of the public school, and hence special stress is laid upon the correct moral and religious life of the teacher and upon the inculcation and encouragement in every manner of a religious spirit among the scholars. As means of discipline, the chief rewards are commendation from the teacher or other member of the school authorities, certifi-

cates of diligence and good behavior, rolls of honor, &c. Punishments include private or public reprimand, before the class or the school authorities, assignment of a separate seat, detention after school for the performance of neglected exercises, and corporal punishment. The semi-annual classification of the scholars has also an important disciplinary influence.

23. *Tuition Fees.*—The requirement of tuition fees is not obligatory upon the community. Where they exist they include instruction in all the school branches and must be paid to the school to which the child legally belongs, except in cases of non-attendance from sickness, physical or mental infirmity, too great distance from the school, or other good reason. They may be graded according to the classes or ages of the scholars and are made payable each week or month. When these fees form an essential part of the teacher's salary, their minimum amount in the trivial school has been recently fixed at three kreutzers (2½ cents) per week, increased to four and five kreutzers in the higher classes. In the high schools they amount to 17–42 kreutzers monthly, and in the Vienna schools to fifty kreutzers. Their collection is obligatory upon the community authorities and the amount goes either directly to the teacher or to the fund from which his salary is paid. The children of the poor are relieved from the payment of these fees, and even in certain other cases a partial exemption is permitted. This exemption is a correlative of compulsory attendance and is in no way affected by the progress or character of the children. In village schools tuition is also not required from more than three children attending at the same time from the same family. In Vienna the instruction of the children of all factory operatives is made gratuitous, but an equivalent compensation may be required from the manufacturers. In Bohemia, by a law of 1863, the full amount of the fees of all exempted children is to be made up to the teacher by the community.

24. *Regularity of Attendance.*—Uninterrupted attendance for at least six years and until twelve years of age is required of such children as do not enter a gymnasium or real school. Time that has been lost without sufficient reason must be so far made up as to secure the required amount of instruction. A record of attendance is kept by every teacher, he examines into all cases of irregularity, and such as require farther attention are reported weekly to the pastor. If his admonitions and efforts fail to remedy the fault, the same course follows as is prescribed for cases of continued non-attendance. Where for three months no cases have occurred requiring the interference of the district authorities, the fact is reported by the pastor, and at the close of the year by the district superintendent to the provincial authorities.

25. *Examinations.*—At the close of each half-year the scholars are classified according to their conduct, diligence, and advancement, and an examination is held, of which public notice is previously given. In the high schools an entire day is given to the examination of each class. The

final examination is attended with special festivities and often with the distribution of prize books which, in the Catholic schools, must be selected from such as have been approved by the bishops. After this examination the promotion of the scholars to the higher classes is made, which is, however, for the most part determined by their standing in the general record of rank. Pupils in the trivial schools receive no certificates except at the close of the required course of study. At the high schools, on request of the parents, certificates of the standing of the pupils may be furnished at the close of each half-year.

26. *Private Schools.*—Private day and boarding-schools require a license from the provincial authorities, approved by the bishop, and are kept so far distinct that day scholars can not even be admitted into a boarding-school without the consent of the State Department. Day schools may give instruction in special branches or in all the studies of the common school, and may include modern languages, music, &c. They are not permitted to increase beyond the obvious wants of a community and are generally allowed only in the larger towns. The teachers must be qualified to give instruction in the proposed branches, and in Catholic schools religious instruction must be secured. When they take the place of common schools they are subject to the same regulations as to studies, school-books, form of records, and management, and if they prove well conducted may be permitted to hold public examinations and confer certificates. Boarding-schools can be established only by experienced and approved teachers and the instruction, so far as it corresponds with that of the common school, is under the same regulations. Family instruction requires no certificate of qualification on the part of the teachers and is subjected to no supervision. The requirements by which Jewish girls—who receive all their instruction in this manner—were annually examined before the superintendent, has mostly gone out of practice. Pupils of private schools or of private tutors may be examined in the presence of the teachers of a public school and receive a private certificate, but to obtain a legally valid certificate they must undergo a public school examination; similar requirements are made as of the public school scholars and the certificates are of a similar form.

27. *Adult Instruction.*—The after-instruction of youth in the common practical branches of education is conducted in close connection with the common school and through the same agencies. The tradesmen, especially in the cities, are required to take an active interest in it, and to appoint special inspectors to aid in its superintendence. In Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia there are comparatively few schools in connection with which such instruction is not given, while in Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and the Tyrol the proportion is somewhat greater. In the Littorale, on the other hand, more than half—in Galicia, three-fifths—and in Bukowina, four-fifths of the schools are without it. In Dalmatia and in Lombardy and Venice it is very rarely met with.

The obligation of attendance continues from leaving the common school to the end of the fifteenth year or, with apprentices, to the close of their term of service, excepting generally such as are attending other schools. All the teachers of the common schools are obliged to aid in giving instruction, for which they are paid by the communities or from the school fund. Vienna expended 6,000 fl. for this purpose in 1863. The instruction occupies at least two hours a week, or three hours when drawing is taught, which may be taken on Sundays or holidays (excepting the high feasts) or in the morning and evening of other days. At the trivial schools the scholars are graded sometimes into two classes, at the high schools into three or four, according to their advancement. The sexes are always taught separately. The purpose is not merely the review and application to practical life of what has been previously learned, but the imparting of new information, and especially such as will be useful to the pupils in their several callings. Exercises are continued in writing and arithmetic and in the easier forms of business composition, and in the fourth class instruction is given in the more important principles of book-keeping and banking. Much more attention is given than in the common schools to natural history and geography, and in the higher class at the high school half of the time should be given to drawing with special reference to the prospective wants of a majority of the pupils.

A tuition fee or other charge is not usual and poor pupils are supplied by the community with books, paper, &c. A record of attendance is kept and delinquent parents and employers are subject to a fine of 2–4 fl., or to a day's arrest, while proprietors of manufactories may be fined 10–400 fl. and imprisoned from two days to three months. When the blame for non-attendance rests upon the pupil, it may be followed by corporal punishment or even imprisonment. Examinations and other public exercises may be held at the close of the year, and certificates (usually attached to the certificates of religious attendance) are given to such as have satisfactorily completed the course.

28. *Burgher Schools.*—These schools, which are attached to the high schools, are restricted to the course of a subordinate real school, not preparing their pupils for the higher real schools and technical studies, but for the occupations of tradesmen and operatives. The number of these schools is 117, principally in the provinces of Upper Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and the Kingdom of Lombardy and Venice. Excepting one Jewish school, all are Catholic. Forty-seven give a three-years' course, the remainder having two classes. Instruction is given by the director and catechist of the high school and by 3–5 additional teachers, who with the high school teachers form one body as to rank, privileges, &c., and their appointment, term of trial, salaries, and pensions are governed generally by the same principles. The salary is usually somewhat greater.

The hours of instruction are thirty each week, of which two are given to religion, embracing a review of the catechism and Bible history, with

an explanation of the church customs and feasts, and lessons in church history. In language, four or five hours are given to cultivating fluency and purity of speech, accuracy in writing, and a knowledge of usual business forms—the written exercises commencing with imitations of what may have been read and advancing to original compositions, which are usually prepared in school and are always subjected to a careful correction. Three hours may be given in like manner to German, and in some schools a third language is introduced. In the three or four hours of arithmetical instruction, attention is given chiefly to accuracy of calculation and to the most important practical rules, with their application to bank accounts, single book-keeping, computation of taxes, &c. History is taught only by occasional explanations and narrations. Geography is treated of generally in its relations to commerce, and with more detail in respect to Austria and the several provinces. Five hours are given to natural philosophy in the lower classes, and six in the upper class to chemistry, with special regard to their application in the arts and manufactures. Ten hours in the first class and four in the second are devoted to geometry and geometrical drawing—six in the second and seven in the third to off-hand drawing—and three in the higher class to architecture and architectural drawing, which includes the making of simple plans of buildings and accompanying estimates. Two hours a week are also given to ornamental penmanship. French, Italian, English, music, and gymnastics are optional branches.

As respects admission, classification, examinations, and certificates, the same holds good in general as of the high school. Besides the tuition fees, which are limited to 5–10 fl., an entrance fee of two fl. is charged and additional sums for the several optional studies. A remittance of the tuition is conditional upon a satisfactory progress and very good marks for conduct, attention, and diligence. At the close of the year a programme is issued, with the record and school statistics of the past school year, and always accompanied by a scientific essay.

29. *Teachers' Seminaries.*—The total number of institutions for the training of trivial and high school teachers is thirty-nine, all Catholic with the exception of the Protestant school at Bielitz in Silesia, founded in 1863. The students generally pay the full expense, but board is sometimes furnished and the Government occasionally grants stipends where there would otherwise be a want of candidates or to encourage the completion of a more extended course than that which is prescribed. These "preparatory institutions" are attached to the normal and model high schools and are under the immediate management of the same directors, with the aid of the high school teachers and sometimes special teachers for normal training and other branches. Candidates for admission must be sixteen years of age, of good health and morals, with at least a "good" grade of certificate from an under gymnasium, under real school, or burgher school, and with some knowledge of music and the organ. Protestant and other candidates are admitted as the supply of Catholic

students permits, the qualifications required not including music and the organ.

The usual subjects of the course are religious instruction, including Biblical history and the liturgy, as well as the duties of chorister and sexton; pedagogy, and the School Constitution so far as it relates to instruction, discipline, and the teacher's duties; grammar, in its widest sense, including especially the German language; arithmetic; ornamental penmanship and drawing; geometry; vocal music and organ-playing; and agriculture. The study of natural history, physics, technology, geography, history, and the like, is limited to essentials, and throughout the course the wants of the common school are kept in view and the instruction simplified as much as possible. In the Vienna school the course includes methods of deaf, dumb, and blind instruction and visits to institutions for the care of young children. The course continues two years, the first being devoted chiefly to the study of the common school branches; in Lombardy and Venice there is still a six-months' course for trivial and a year's course for high school teachers. Candidates who pass successfully the final examination are graded as under-teachers, trivial teachers, or high school teachers, and of these the lower grades may be admitted to a second examination after a year's service in teaching.

When the supply of fully trained teachers is insufficient for the demand, under-teachers' certificates may be given to the better scholars at the end of the first year, with the privilege of examination for a full certificate after a year's service if at that time twenty years of age. A year's course for trivial and under-teachers may also be given at the high schools, with special attention to practical instruction, and for the remote mountain districts of the Tyrol private training is often given to under-teachers by competent teachers and catechists. Candidates who have attended no normal course but have pursued the required studies, and had the necessary practical experience, may be admitted to a private examination at the teachers' seminary of a normal high school.

30. *Training of Female and Burgher School Teachers.*—In Styria, Carniola, Moravia, and Silesia the female schools are all in the hands of the female religious orders; in Dalmatia and the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice no normal training is required; in the other provinces there are fifteen female schools where normal teaching is permitted by the State Department. The organization of these departments and of the course of instruction is in most respects the same as in the teachers' seminaries. Music and agriculture are replaced in the course by such feminine occupations as are most practically useful, and those who graduate as under-teachers can usually be readmitted to an examination only after three years of service. Candidates for the novitiate in such convents and religious orders as are engaged in instruction must have passed through a course of normal training, during their novitiate their preparation for teaching is kept in view, and their capacity and fitness for the

occupation are tested by a final examination. The Royal Institutes at Vienna and Herrnals for the daughters of civil and army officers dependent upon the Government, are chiefly for the training of teachers and their certificates are equally valid with those of the normal schools.

A course of training for burgher school teachers is given at the fully organized real schools, continuing two years. Candidates must be seventeen years of age and possess the certificates or qualifications of graduates of a three-class real school and of a normal school, except such as are unusually proficient in chemistry or drawing. The pupils are divided into three groups—of language, history, geography, and natural history; of mathematics, drawing, and physics; and of natural history, physics, chemistry, and arithmetic—with occasional modifications. Each group is placed under the special care of a teacher of the real school, who sees that the plan of study is adhered to, arranges the written exercises, criticises the papers, and holds weekly interviews with the candidates. The examination is both oral and written, and always concludes with a written essay. To obtain a certificate the candidate must pass successfully in all the branches of a group.

31. *Book Publishing House.*—The Government Publishing House has exclusive charge of the printing and publication of all the school-books and material of instruction that are prescribed for the Austrian schools. The supply, however, of the Littorale is still effected through a publishing house at Trieste, and that of the Ruthenic schools to some extent by the Stauropigian Institute at Lemberg, which is connected with the Greek-Catholic Church and was founded as a religious order in 1453. The establishment is self-supporting and pays a surplus (92,379 fl. in 1863) into the several provincial school funds in proportion to the value of the supplies furnished to each province, which surplus arises from the impossibility of fixing the prices accurately in accordance with the cost of production and distribution. Sales are effected through the booksellers or private licensed agents, to whom a commission of from ten to thirty per cent. is allowed, and who can not vary from the prices imprinted on each book. By the catalogue of May, 1864, there are now published twelve religious books, twenty-one primers and reading-books, four grammars, five arithmetics, a collection of copy-sheets, twenty-five manuals, and nineteen other publications, in the German language. Of a similar character there are thirty-eight volumes in Czechish, thirty Polish, nine Ruthenic, thirty-six Slovenic, thirty-three Croat, thirty Servian, forty-two Italian, thirty-six Romaic, twenty-seven Magyar, and three Hebrew. The total number of volumes published in 1863 was 1,310,370. The number in 1847 was but 432,908 in ten different languages.

This method of publication facilitates the supply of books gratuitously, either by way of gift or loan, to the children of poor parents. The books for the fourth class of the high school, for the burgher schools, and for adult instruction, as well as the larger catechism, are not thus supplied. The value of the books distributed gratuitously in 1865 amounted to 39,084 fl.

3. *Results and Defects.*

The history of the schools of Austria during the last fifteen years shows conclusively that the system of public instruction is undergoing a process of rapidly advancing improvement, that the population of even the most backward provinces are awake to participation in it, are jealous for its promotion, and are making great sacrifices for the better education of their children. It is also evident that there are still points which need the reformer's hand, or where in practice the results have differed from the expectations of the legislator. The following table shows the statistics of the schools for the year 1861 :—

TABLE.—STATISTICS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1861.

Provinces.	High Schools.			Regular Trivial Schools.			Irregular Schools.	Total.	Population per School.*	Adult Schools.	Burgher Schools.	Normal Schools.		Normal Pupils.		Teachers.		Under Teachers.		School Funds.	
	Male.	Female.	Mixed.	Male.	Female.	Mixed.						Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.†	Female.	Male.	Female.	Receipts.	Expenses.
Low. Austria..	43	34	29	5	6	1,000	45	1,162	1,198	1,162	15	3	1	207	81	1,201	41	968	9	80,435 fl.	77,318 fl.
Up. Austria....	5	..	3	1	6	478	1	494	1,410	466	3	1	1	52	3	507	12	320	10	29,960 "	35,636 "
Salzburg,.....	2	1	..	2	6	138	1	150	972	141	...	1	1	14	7	145	22	40	8	2,709 "	8,457 "
Styria,.....	4	2	13	4	6	542	127	698	1,413	616	4	3	..	53	...	714	65	287	15	22,564 "	67,806 "
Carinthia,.....	2	2	3	3	3	290	30	333	926	296	1	..	..	.....	...	303	28	76	11	10,045 "	21,235 "
Carniola,.....	5	2	7	2	2	157	57	232	1,637	207	...	2	1	55	2	196	24	28	22	9,347 "	21,381 "
Littorale,.....	18	14	4	64	44	102	88	334	1,199	157	4	2	2	25	42	325	91	39	32	16,260 "	61,212 "
Tyrol and Vor.,	14	15	3	407	406	939	136	1,920	447	1,629	9	5	6	118	71	1,301	509	531	176	39,688 "	59,167 "
Bohemia,.....	58	8	46	18	63	3,520	149	3,802	1,264	3,759	34	8	1	398	42	3,463	45	2,507	22	97,111 "	105,127 "
Moravia,.....	23	1	15	1	18	1,580	83	1,721	1,112	1,699	12	2	..	285	...	1,622	29	739	6	44,055 "	54,521 "
Silesia,.....	8	1	2	3	8	405	.....	427	1,095	412	3	2	..	37	...	402	24	152	17	12,218 "	30,024 "
Galicia,.....	42	10	12	7	42	1,316	1,118	2,547	1,374	972	10	7	1	205	14	1,407	110	1,145	58	36,263 "	112,977 "
Bukowina, ...	4	2	2	4	1	111	7	131	2,000	29	2	1	1	4	5	144	7	5	1	2,600 "	9,859 "
Dalmatia.	10	2	1	93	24	9	48	187	2,264	10	3	2	..	15	2	166	33	24	7	3,630 "	45,762 "
Lom. and Ven.,	54	12	..	1,709	215	.....	54	2,044	1,196	789	13	..	..	.....	...	.....	2,520		...	....	93,131 "
Mil. Frontier, ..	..	26	..	.....	39	183	732	980	.....	.....	...	..	..	.....	...	.....	1,035		...	.....	.....
	564			13,982			2,676	17,222		12,334	117	39	15	1,468	269		23,836			406,875 fl.	803,643 fl.

* Not including the provincial capitals, nor the territory unassigned to school-districts. † Not including catechists.

One of the most prominent deficiencies shown by the above table is in the number of schools in several of the provinces, and in the defective organization of many that exist. Even in the provinces best supplied with regularly organized schools, the number of those fully organized (high schools) is small in proportion to the number of trivial schools; and the same is true of the number of female schools, which, however, is largely affected by the force of ancient custom, as is shown by the Italian provinces. Another prominent defect is the deficiency of teachers, whether as compared with the number of schools or of scholars. In some provinces it would appear that the trivial schools must be almost without exception under single teachers, while the number of school children to each teacher exceeds 100 in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and the Littorale, 120 in Lombardy and Venice, 150 in Carniola and Galicia, and rises to 330 in Bukowina. Hence arises such an overcrowding of classes as must cripple the efficiency of the most efficient teacher even of a high school, and much more in the trivial school where the single teacher has often to instruct 200 or more pupils of different ages and in different classes. To this is also due much of the half-day instruction in the country, which must necessarily be very imperfect and unsatisfactory in its results.

This deficiency of teachers is in part due to the inadequacy of many of the salaries. Though in Upper Austria many country under-teachers receive as much as 200 fl. besides their board, and in Bohemia the income of village teachers rises to 400 fl. and upward, yet even in the best conditioned provinces there are those who receive less than 100 fl., while in Carinthia the average salary does not exceed 180 fl., in Galicia the teacher seldom has over 100 fl., and in Styria the highest salary of an under-teacher scarcely amounts to 50 fl., which is, indeed, in addition to lodging and board, but not an inconsiderable portion of the salaries is gained by services as chorister and sexton, and in many places the collection of the tuition fees and payments in kind is still left to the teachers, which gives rise to troubles and difficulties of every kind. In most of the cities, even, the established salaries are generally too small, while promotion to the higher grades is slow and beset often with almost insurmountable difficulties. The want of the right of pension, too, in the case of so many teachers has a depressing influence and makes even the better salaries appear unsatisfactory. The pension societies afford much aid, but the necessity of contributing to them adds not a little to the inconveniences under which they labor. Time will be required for the removal of these evils, which in the small communities will be delayed by poverty and indifference, in the larger by the recent extraordinary increase in the demands upon their resources. The gradual improvement of the communities and their firmer establishment in their newly established relations will go far to effect a reform.

The school attendance of children above and below the school age is not shown by past statistics. This as well as other important facts will be determined by the school census of 1865, which is intended to give in

minute detail the condition of every school in the Empire. The proportion of attendance, as shown by present statistics, varies very greatly in the several provinces, being in the Tyrol somewhat above the full number of children between the school ages, and very nearly full in Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and the more German portion of the Frontier. In Styria and Carinthia it is less complete; in Carniola, the Littorale, and Venice, it is less than half; and in Galicia, Dalmatia, and Bukowina averages not more than one-sixth. The attendance of girls is generally less than that of boys, the difference being most marked in the Italian provinces, where the girls of all classes as a rule receive their education in private schools. Like differences are observable in each province, the result of differences in the physical characteristics of its territory, the density and occupations of its population, but far more of difference of nationality, the German element taking the lead. In Dalmatia the contrast is striking between the Italian districts of the coast and islands and the Slavonic interior. The irregularity of attendance, again, is in many cases very great, especially in the country, where in some districts winter with its storms, and in others summer with its field labors, thins the school-room. And in spite of all the care that is taken to prevent it, it is even worse with the children of factory operatives, who are often detained from school the whole year through. These evils may be diminished, though not entirely removed, by more decided action on the part of the district authorities.

As respects the character of the schools, it is very desirable that the number of classes should be increased, for as at present organized with but three or, at the most, four classes, such children as are not transferred to more advanced schools, must before the close of their six years' attendance have repeated the course of at least two of the classes. While this also crowds the studies within the classes and enforces an advance to which the less talented scholars can not attain, there is each year an increasing number of review scholars, to the great injury of the scholars themselves. A more extended gradation would permit a more thorough mastery and an extension of the present course of study; etymology, orthography, and syntax could be made more than matters of mere rote and rule, as is now too often the case, and arithmetic could be treated more in its applications to practice and more time be given to drill in its fundamental branches. An extension of the instruction in the direction of the real branches is especially indispensable. As the studies of the common school are with most of the pupils the limit of the instruction which they receive, the cursory knowledge which they there gain of geography, history, and the natural sciences is not sufficient for the proper general development of the minds of the pupils, and though the fourth class of the high school goes so far as to prepare for the gymnasium and real school, yet in the least advanced provinces it is usually attended only by those who intend to enter those institutions. Stronger efforts should also be made for the instruction of girls in feminine

employments. In the Tyrol, indeed, the condition of whose schools is in many respects so favorable, there are teachers for the purpose connected with two-thirds of the regular schools, and in the larger towns of other provinces much of the private instruction is directed to this object, but less attention generally is given to it and there are large extents of country where it is entirely wanting.

Adult instruction is still very defective and the attendance upon it is less general and much less regular than upon the usual day schools. This irregularity is not the fault alone of the parents and employers; too frequently the instruction, which more than any other needs maturity of judgment and experience, is thrown upon the younger and less interested teachers, through whose negligence and imperfect methods of teaching these schools have fallen into too general disrepute. The number of schools must be increased, more time must be given to them, and there must be a more uniform and complete system of organization of the system of instruction, which must be more than a mere review of past studies, before they will fulfill as they ought the duty of supplementing the instruction of the common schools—if the extension of obligatory attendance upon the common schools to the end of the fourteenth year and the organization of every such school in eight classes be not preferable. The extent to which a common education prevails among the lower classes may be judged, in some measure, from the number of military recruits in the several provinces who are found unable to write, and also from the criminal statistics, which show the number of criminals unable to read. The results are nearly the same, showing that of recruits and criminals of the German provinces of Austria, Tyrol, and Salzburg three-fourths, or more, are able to read and write. In Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia the proportion is somewhat less; in the southern provinces of Styria, Carinthia, Lombardy and Venice, the Littorale, and Carniola it diminishes to one-half and one-fourth, while in Dalmatia, Galicia, and Bukowina it is one-twentieth, or even less.

The burgher school, looked upon as a continuation of the common school, may be considered a failure. They have become, as the popular voice styles them, subordinate real schools, fitting pupils for the higher real school and indirectly for technical studies, and are rarely attended by any but such as intend to pursue an academical course. A satisfactory training for the mass of youth not intending such a course can be gained only by making provision for it in the common school itself—by reorganizing a number of the high schools, broadening the course of instruction, and including such special branches as the peculiar wants of any section may require. Similar schools would finally be needed and be established in all the larger villages. But the existing burgher schools are for boys alone; the establishment of higher female schools has been left wholly to private enterprise, and even in many of the larger cities those that belong to the more cultivated ranks must send their daughters to a distance, if they would secure their education beyond the most

necessary elements. There is, therefore, need of a grade of public female schools corresponding to the burgher schools.

Another necessity of the greatest importance is the reorganization of the normal schools. The number of pupils has, indeed, increased considerably of late years, and fewer exemptions from the required course are permitted, but the course should be more extended, and to effect this the seminary should no longer be attached to a high school, but be an entirely distinct institution, under its own competent teachers, with a course of three or four years, and with suitable provision for the aid of poor candidates. Such a seminary could be properly established and sustained only by the action of a provincial government, or better still by the coöperation of several provinces of closely allied educational interests. The only organized teachers' societies are the "*Volksschule*" and the "*Lehrerverein*," both at Vienna. The number of school journals now published in different parts of the Empire is seven, in several different languages, and as many school calendars and annuals.

With a higher cultivation and intelligence among the body of teachers, the prescriptive system of text-books will doubtless give place to a greater degree of license in their selection. Such license of selection from books duly approved would allow more regard than can now be paid to provincial and even local wants, especially in the use of reading books, and would not necessarily affect the continuance of the present publishing system. While the German and Italian books might probably be produced as cheaply and well by other agencies, the same is not the case with those in other languages, nor can any method be devised more favorable to the communities for the gratuitous supply of books to the children of the poor.

One question yet remains, which does not yield in importance to any other —that of the separation of the schools from the influence of the Church. Upon this subject parties are widely divided and stubbornly opposed to each other, and no attempt at compromise or at the establishment of a just mean between the opposing extremes meets with favor from either side. Yet it is probable that in the reorganization of the method of school administration, without destroying the confessional character of the public school nor the participation of the pastor in the education of the children, a larger share in the immediate management of the school will be given to the community and any possible overstepping of its authority be met by the restraining power of the province or State. In the more general superintendence of the schools, the ecclesiastical authorities will in some suitable manner coöperate with those of the province and of the Empire, while in all its grades a more prominent position will be given to tried and experienced teachers. Certainly, there is nothing either in the Concordat, with respect to the Catholic schools, nor in the Protestant Patent, with respect to the evangelical schools, to prevent such a thorough and effectual reorganization of the system of administration.

XIV. EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

KENTUCKY.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

As EARLY as 1821, there prevailed in Kentucky a strong feeling in favor of popular education. Provision was made for a public school fund, and a Board of Commissioners was appointed by the Legislature to collect information and to prepare and report a system of common schools. These Commissioners, (Messrs. W. T. Barry, David R. Murray, J. R. Witherspoon, and John Pope,) made a Report in the following year, embodying the opinions of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, James Madison, William Johnson, H. W. Desaussure and Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina, and William Duane of Philadelphia, and constituting one of the most valuable documents upon common school education that had at that time appeared.* Nothing, however, was done to carry out their suggestions, and the general interest in a measure subsided.

The earliest instance of association for mutual improvement is believed to have been the "*Mechanics' Institute*," formed at Lexington, in June, 1829, by whose efforts a library was commenced, a course of public lecturers secured, and an "Apprentices' School" established for the instruction of young mechanics. The subject of common schools was again taken up by the Legislature of 1829 and 1830. Rev. Alva Wood and Rev. Benjamin O. Peers were appointed to report any information upon the subject of common schools that would aid the Legislature in selecting and adopting the best system for the State, and the able communication of the latter gentleman, containing the results of his investigations into the most prominent school systems in the Union, accompanied the report for 1830 of the House Committee on Education, of which Charles S. Morehead was Chairman. But no action of importance followed.

In 1831, the "Western College of Teachers" at Cincinnati was organized, and to the influence of its annual meetings is probably due the first educational convention in Kentucky, which met at Lexington on the 6th of November, 1833. The number of dele-

* The Report was written by Amos Kendall, then a teacher in Frankfort. H. B.

gates in attendance was 149, from twenty counties. Rev. B. O. Peers was appointed President; Dr. R. Ferguson and Col. J. Garrard, Vice Presidents; and W. Tannehill, Secretary. Addresses were delivered by Dr. Daniel Drake of Cincinnati, on the "*Education of Males and Females;*" by Rev. Dr. Beecher, Rev. Mr. Kirk, of Albany, and Rev. Mr. Bullard, of Cincinnati. An address was also given by Dr. Charles Caldwell upon "*Physical Education,*" which was afterwards republished in Edinburgh and was widely circulated. Arrangements were made for a State Convention to be held at Frankfort on the 6th of January following, for the organization of a "*State Common School Education Society.*" The records of the subsequent meetings were not fully published, but it appears that the Society was duly organized at Frankfort, that it held a second meeting in August of the same year, and a third in November. Lectures were delivered at the latter meeting by J. L. Van Doren, on the "*Moral Character and Influence of Teachers;*" by Rev. Prof. S. V. Marshall, on the "*Study of the Ancient Languages;*" by Prof. Iucho, on the "*Influence of Music on Education;*" by Rev. R. Davidson, on "*Moral Philosophy in Common Schools;*" by Prof. Dudley, on "*Physiology;*" and by Prof. C. Caldwell, on "*Moral Education.*" It followed the Western College of Teachers in recommending measures for promoting the universal education of the white population of the State, and in appointing a Board of Examiners, who were authorized to give certificates of qualifications in scholarship, in the name of the Society. It was resolved to establish a State Education Library at Lexington; the formation of Agricultural and Education Lyceums was recommended; and a committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature in behalf of immediate measures for promoting common school education, and for the establishment of a Normal School. It is uncertain whether any subsequent meetings were held, and no important changes were made in the school system by the Legislature, until 1838, when the Board of Education and office of Superintendent of Public Instruction were established.

The first Society composed strictly of teachers was the "*Lexington Teachers' Association,*" formed in May, 1842. The Western College of Teachers held its annual meetings at Louisville in 1842, '43, and '44. Much discussion was had upon the school laws of Kentucky, and especially upon the project of making the Teacher respectable by legislating Teaching into a *profession*.. A call was issued for a State Educational Convention at Frankfort on the 9th of January, 1843, but no report is found of its proceedings.

In pursuance of a call issued by Rev. Dr. R. J. Breckinridge, State Superintendent, a general convention of the friends of Education in Kentucky was held in Frankfort, Nov. 12th, 1851,—Hon. J. R. Underwood, Chairman, and Rev. J. H. Heywood, Secretary. At the suggestion of the Superintendent, resolutions were discussed and adopted in relation to various subjects connected with common schools, such as the duration of schools, the course and order of studies, text-books, construction and arrangement of school-houses, the training of teachers at a Normal School or otherwise, County Associations, &c. Committees were appointed to examine and recommend a series of text-books, and a second meeting was appointed to be held at Louisville, August 25th, 1852. We have no record of any further action.

STATE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.

Late in the autumn of 1857, a call was made by the teachers of Louisville, through the personal influence of a gentleman who had devoted both time and means to the cause, for a Convention of Teachers at that city for the formation of a permanent association. The Convention met on the 28th of December and was very largely attended, a lecture was delivered by Rev. C. N. Mattoon, and addresses by other individuals, and the discussions were warm and animated. On the 30th Dec., the KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS was formed with the following officers:—Prof. E. A. Grant, *Pres.;* Profs. N. M. Crawford, J. S. Fall, W. H. Mitchell, C. N. Winston, W. H. Harney, Dr. S. Prettyman, Dr. William Waller, Dr. H. Moore, Pres. J. A. Williams, and G. E. Roberts, *Vice Pres.;* E. A. Holyoke, *Sec.;* and J. T. Clark, *Treas.* Various committees were appointed to report at the next meeting.

The second meeting of the Association was held at Lexington, July 6th, 1858, and an annual meeting at Louisville, during the Christmas holidays. A prominent subject before these meetings was the publication of a weekly family paper, not to be exclusively confined to the educational interest, which was commenced in February, 1859, under the editorship of E. A. Holyoke, of Louisville, and the title of the "*Kentucky Family Journal.*" At the meeting at Louisville, discussions were also held upon what should be considered the essential qualifications of a teacher for his admission to the charge of a school, the question of the necessity of the study of foreign and ancient languages to a thorough knowledge of the English, and upon the best mode of moral training in school. An address was delivered by Pres. J. A. Williams, and the former president and secretary were reëlected.

In March, 1856, the "*Louisville Teachers' Institute*" was formed, which soon embraced the greater part of the teachers of the public schools as well as some private teachers.

The fourth convention (semi-annual) met at Harrodsburg, 23d August, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Prof. W. N. Hailman, on "*Object Teaching*," and by Prof. J. B. Dodd, on the "*Nature of Arithmetical Science.*" The subject of the use of the Bible as a text-book in schools, excited a warm discussion. When and how books shall be used in the education of the young, and the proportion of the day and of the year that pupils should be confined to study, as also the affairs of the Journal, were made subjects of debate. It was resolved to discontinue the weekly paper and to commence the publication of the "*Educational Monthly*," the first number of which was issued in November, 1859,—E. A. Holyoke, resident editor. A committee, consisting of Pres. L. W. Green, Pres. Robert Milligan, and Pres. J. A. Williams, was appointed to memorialize the Legislature in behalf of a Normal School.

The third *Annual Meeting* was held at Paris, Dec. 27th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Pres. Milligan, Prof. W. N. Hailman, and Noble Butler, and discussions were held upon the expediency of public examinations in high schools and academies, the best methods of teaching history and composition in schools, and the relation of parent and pupil to the teacher. Action was also taken in promotion of the formation of County Associations. E. A. Grant and E. A. Holyoke were reëlected as president and secretary.

The semi-annual meeting of the Association in August, 1860, was held at the Mammoth Cave, at which addresses were delivered by Prof. Parsons, on the "*Uses and Abuses of Intellect;*" by Prof. Wilson, on "*Language;*" and by Dr. Hamilton, of Tennessee, on "*Introducing Industrial Departments into the Female Schools of the South.*" The amount of mental discipline afforded by the study of the usual common school course, and the present system of college discipline were made the subjects of protracted dissussion. The publication of the "Monthly" was discontinued during the year, and the subsequent meetings of the Association were interrupted by the events of the Rebellion. An attempt was made to resuscitate it in 1864, but unsuccessfully. Under the auspices of the State Board of Education a new organization was effected in 1865, but of the plan or proceedings of the meeting we have seen no account.

TENNESSEE.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

An earliest State Educational Society in Tennessee, styled the "*Literary Institute and Association of Professional Teachers*," was organized at Nashville, Nov. 4th, 1837. Rev. Philip Lindsley, D. D., was President, and Rev. G. Weller, D. D., was Corresponding Secretary. A meeting was held on the 27th and 28th of December following, at which addresses were given by Rev. Dr. Weller, on the "*Advantages, to Teachers, of Organization;*" and by Rev. Henry Moore, on the "*Reciprocal Duties of Parents and Teachers.*" Arrangements were also made for a meeting to be held in October, 1838, but nothing is found of its proceedings. The origin of this Society may perhaps be traced to the "*State Lyceum*" which was organized through the personal influence of Josiah Holbrook, at Nashville, in December, 1831. The first officers were:—Rev. P. Lindsley, D. D., *Pres.* Robert Anderson, R. C. Dunlap, W. G. Hunt, L. D. Ring, J. Haskell, and W. Stoddard, *Vice-Pres.* J. Thompson and G. Weller, *Sec.* There were also nine Curators. Much more was expected from this Lyceum than it effected. "It is ultimately destined to be a central rallying point for the local lyceums and literary institutions of the State. Its immediate tendency, it is hoped, will be to diffuse a spirit of activity and liberality in the cause of popular education, and to promote the erection of schools and lyceums in every part of the State." It was probably not without its good results, though nothing more is heard of it.

The first suggestion of an Educational Convention in the State of Tennessee appeared in the columns of the "South-western Journal of Education," in March, 1849. This journal was then under the charge of Prof. Samuel A. Jewett, and was a continuation of "The Radix," which had been published during the previous year at Richmond, Va. Mr. S. S. Randall was associated with Mr. Jewett as corresponding editor of the "Journal." A call was accordingly issued and a convention met at Knoxville on the 9th of April, 1849, for the purpose of organizing a society. Hon. W. B. Reese was

appointed Chairman, and Prof. A. M. Lea, Secretary. A constitution was adopted, in which the object of the Association was stated to be "to advance the interests of education in East Tennessee, by improving the common school system, through legislative action and otherwise, by encouraging young men to qualify themselves suitably for the profession of teaching, and by awakening a more general interest upon the subject of education by means of popular lectures and the adoption of such other active measures as may from time to time be deemed expedient." The following officers were elected:—Hon. W. B. Reese, *President.* R. S. Hynds, S. W. J. Lucky, T. N. Van Dyke, Rev. W. D. Carnes, and D. R. McAnally, *Vice-Presidents.* S. A. Jewett and Rev. T. Macintire, *Secretaries.* Prof. A. M. Lea, *Treasurer.* Adjourned meetings were held on the 28th of April and 9th of June, in the same year, at which very little of importance was done, and no farther record of the history of the Society appears.

After the war of the Rebellion, Tennessee was the first State in which any general movement was made in behalf of education. On the 21st of July, 1865, in response to a previous call through the press, an Educational Convention met at Knoxville, in the chapel of the Female Institute. Rev. Mr. Humes was elected President; Col. S. R. Rodgers, Vice-President; and J. F. Spence, Secretary; besides whom some forty others were present. The TENNESSEE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was immediately organized by the adoption of a constitution and the election of the following officers:—Rev. Thomas W. Humes, *Pres.* Col. M. C. Wilcox, *Vice-Pres.* Prof. John F. Spence, *Rec. Sec.* Chancellor J. B. Lindsley, *Cor. Sec.* Dr. R. L. Standford, *Treas.* Dr. J. B. Lindsley, Col. M. C. Wilcox, and A. A. Gee, *Ex. Com.* Membership in the Association was made open to "any teacher or active friend of education loyal to the Government of the United States." The following resolutions were adopted:—

That we will do all in our power as teachers and friends of true progress to make education free to every child in the State.

That we urge upon the Legislature of the State the establishment (at as early a day as practicable) of Teacher's Seminaries or Normal Schools, for the more thorough training of professional teachers for the schools of the State.

That we hail with pleasure the establishment of schools among the freed people, as the safest and shortest way not only to enable them to take care of themselves, but to fit them for the exercise of the functions of citizens.

Messrs. Dr. J. B. Lindsley, Rev. R. P. Wells, and Hon. S. R. Rodgers were appointed to prepare an address on the subject of popular education, the formation of County and District Teachers' Associations was recommended, and the Association adjourned to meet at Nashville on the 12th of Oct., 1865.

GEORGIA.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE earliest State Teachers' Association organized in the United States was formed at Milledgeville, Georgia, January 20th, 1831, under the title of "*The Teachers' Society and Board of Education of the State of Georgia.*" It was strictly a *Teachers'* Association, its membership, other than honorary, being restricted to that profession, and its object "to promote the diffusion of knowledge especially among teachers, to promote harmony and coöperation in their efforts, and uniformity in their modes of teaching." Nineteen teachers were present at its formation, and Rev. C. P. Beman, principal of a female seminary at Mt. Zion, at that time one of the most flourishing in the country, was the first President. Meetings were afterwards held at Milledgeville, Athens, Savannah, and Mt. Zion. The Manual Labor system was then attracting much attention, several institutions had been established in Georgia upon that basis, and the subject was a prominent one in the discussions of the Society. Female education was also a frequent subject of debate.

The third Annual Meeting of this Society, at Savannah, in December, 1833, was of more than usual interest. Mr. Josiah Holbrook, of Boston, and Mr. Huntoon, of Maine, were present and the claims of the Lyceum system were presented and received especial attention. Reports were received upon the condition of schools in various parts of the State, which show that the same spirit of educational revival was then for a time awakened in Georgia which in other States led to more marked and permanent results. Says a journal of that date:—"Though the condition of common schools is deplorable and the apathy of parents and trustees, in relation to education, is much to be lamented, a better state of things may shortly be expected. The community are becoming awake to the cause generally through the State. The spirit of improvement is abroad. Schools of a high order are springing up. Many female seminaries have recently been established. County classical schools are improving in their character. More enlightened views of in-

struction are pervading the community. Efficient teachers are more in demand and more liberally patronized than formerly, and the cause of education is rapidly on the advance." The annual meeting of the Society appointed for Dec., 1834, was, however, a failure and the first "Teachers' Society" thus became extinct.

The formation of the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, in 1853, may be traced to the establishment of the "*Southern School Journal*," the publication of which was commenced at Columbus, in January of that year, under the editorship of Thomas F. Scott. Through its influence, County Associations were soon formed; in Muscogee county, in February, 1853; in Talbot county, in May; also in Harris and other counties. A State Convention was afterwards called to meet at Griffin, Aug. 10th, 1853, when a State Association was organized, and the following officers elected:—Rev. Thomas B. Slade, (an active member of the first Society,) *President.* Rev. F. R. Goulding, Bernard Mallon, Rev. L. L. Wittich, and Rev. J. W. Reid, *Vice-Presidents.* Rev. O. L. Smith and W. D. Williams, *Secretaries.* H. E. Morrow, *Treasurer.* Rev. E. H. Myers, J. Darby, Rev. C. P. B. Martin, J. E. Willet, and L. La Taste, *Executive Committee.* Addresses were delivered by Rev. T. F. Scott, J. Darby, and others, on Common School Education, arrangements were made for a series of lectures and reports at the next meeting, and the "Southern Journal" was adopted as the organ of the Association. The whole number of teachers in attendance at this meeting was thirty-one. An adjourned meeting was held at Milledgeville, Nov. 30th, 1853. Its time was chiefly occupied in consultation upon the steps that ought to be taken by the Legislature towards commencing the work of general education in the State—but no report of the proceedings was published. The "School Journal" commenced its second volume, with Rev. E. H. Myers as editor, but was discontinued before the close of the year. The second Annual Meeting of the Association was appointed to be held at Madison in August, 1854, but no record is found of it or of any subsequent meeting. The whole educational energy of the State seems to have been exhausted in the first year's effort.

NORTH CAROLINA

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE earliest Educational Society in the State of North Carolina was the "*North Carolina Institute of Education*," formed in January, 1831, and probably a result of the efforts of J. Caldwell, President of the State University, to arouse public attention to the subject of education.* A second Annual Meeting was held on the 20th of January, 1832, at which lectures were delivered (afterwards published) by Alfred Moore, H. S. Ellenwood, and Prof. William Hooper, on the imperfections of the primary schools, the remedies, &c. No subsequent meetings are mentioned.

For the twenty years that followed and until the calling of the State Convention in 1856, there seems to have been no organized united effort whatever in behalf of education. The prime mover in the formation of the State Association was Hon. C. H. Wiley, who, after his appointment in 1853 as Superintendent of Common Schools, had devoted himself most energetically and zealously to his duties, using every means at his command to arouse the people to a sense of the lamentable condition of their schools, and to a willingness to attempt their improvement. For the benefit of teachers and to bring them together into associations for mutual improvement, as well as to bind them together into bodies that they might present more tangible objects for the exertions of the friends of education in their behalf, he had strongly and repeatedly urged upon the Legislature to authorize and aid from the School Fund the formation of what he styled "*Teachers' Library Associations.*" Failing in this, with a like object and in order to secure a general convention of the classical and common school teachers of the State, a district convention of teachers and friends of education was called to meet at Goldsboro to consult upon the best means of effecting it. This convention met May 7th, 1856—William K. Lane, Esq., presiding. Addresses were delivered by Hon. C. H. Wiley, Rev. Z. Graves,

* Letters on Popular Education, addressed to the People of North Carolina, (signed Cleveland,) in Raleigh Gazette, 1830. Pamphlet, 1832

and Rev. W. Closs, upon the objects of the meeting, committees were appointed, and arrangements made to secure a full convention from all parts of the State.

This first State Educational Convention met at Salisbury, Oct. 21st to 24th, 1856. One hundred and twenty-five delegates were present, representing thirty different counties. Dr. J. T. Wheat, of Chapel Hill, was appointed President; E. W. Ogburn, Vice-President; R. H. Brown and C. C. Cole, Secretaries. A permanent Society was formed, to be called the EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF NORTH CAROLINA, and an Executive Committee was appointed, consisting of Messrs. C. H. Wiley, W. N. H. Smith, J. H. Foote, E. W. Ogburn, and J. T. Wheat. The adoption of a constitution and election of regular officers were deferred to the next Annual Meeting. An address was delivered by C. H. Wiley, on the "*Best Method of Increasing the Number and Efficiency of Teachers.*" Essays were read by Dr. Waddell, on the "*Best Means of Uniting Teachers in Systematic Effort;*" by E. W. Caruthers, on "*School Architecture;*" by Pres. B. Craven and C. H. Wiley, on "*Communicating Instruction;*" by B. Sumner, in behalf of a "*State Military Academy;*" and by D. S. Richardson and Rev. W. L. Van Eaton, on "*School Government.*" Discussions were held on the question of the expediency of a legislative requirement that all common school teachers should be competent to teach reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and grammar; on the necessity of a State Military Academy; and on other subjects relating to the general interests of education and common schools. A committee was also appointed to petition the Legislature for the establishment of a Normal School.

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.—At Warrenton, June 30th to July 2d, 1857. One hundred and forty-three members, from thirty-one counties, were present on the first day of the session. A constitution was adopted, and the following officers elected:—Rev. A. Wilson, D. D., *President.* E. W. Ogburn, Prof. Charles Phillips, William Robinson, W. K. Blake, Prof. Walters, and Prof. M. D. Johnston, *Vice-Presidents.* G. W. Brooks and W. H. Bass, *Secretaries.* Addresses were delivered by W. W. Holden, on the "*History of Common Schools in North Carolina;*" by Mr. Merrill, on "*Textbooks,*" and by others. In accordance with action taken at this meeting, the publication of the "*North Carolina Journal of Education*" was commenced in January, 1858, and continued for two years, under the direction of the State Superintendent, C. H. Wiley, and a board of editors. The "*North Carolina Common School*

Journal" had previously been established by Mr. Wiley and published through the year 1856–7.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Statesville, July 7th to 9th, 1858. All the regular officers were absent, though the general attendance was larger than at previous meetings. The following officers were elected:—Rev. Baxter Clegg, *Pres.* Prof. J. M. Hubbard, Prof. R. Sterling, Rev. B. Craven, Dr. A. A. Scroggs, Rev. W. B. Jones, and W. H. Mayhew, *Vice-Pres.* C. C. Cole and J. D. Campbell, *Sec.* An address was delivered by Rev. J. Nott, D. D., on "*Education—Its Means, Progress, Defects, and Friends.*" Essays were read by E. P. Tucke, on "*Normal Schools;*" and by Mrs. D. W. Jones, on the "*Necessity of Female Education.*" Reports were received from various County Associations, and from Prof. Hubbell, on the condition and prospects of the University.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newbern, June 14th to 17th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Rev. B. Clegg, on the "*Duties of the Association;*" by Prof. F. M. Hubbard, on the "*Condition of Education and Literary Culture in the State;*" by Gov. Swain, on the "*War of the Regulation;*" and by Rev. W. H. Doherty. An essay was read from Mrs. D. W. Jones, on "*Female Schools.*" Reports were presented by Prof. M. D. Johnston, on "*Normal Schools;*" by Rev. J. H. Brent, on "*Mixed Schools;*" and by the Committee on Educational Statistics. A discussion was held upon "*Methods of Teaching and School Discipline.*" The following officers were elected:—W. W. Holden, *Pres.* J. P. Ross, C. W. Smythe, H. Norwood, D. S. Richardson, Rev. L. Branson, and Rev. N. McKay, *Vice-Pres.* J. D. Campbell and C. C. Cole, *Sec.* The attendance at this meeting was quite large, numbering two hundred and sixty members, from thirty-eight counties.

A Fourth Annual Meeting was probably held in 1860, but the report of its proceedings has not been attainable.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

The educational record of South Carolina shows but few traces of any associated efforts for the advancement of popular education, although the principle of association has been applied to the establishment of schools of various grades. In 1710 the Assembly incorporated certain persons to receive the gifts and legacies made "for erecting a Free School in Charleston, for the instruction in grammar and other arts and sciences, and especially in the principles of the Christian religion"—"the teacher is to be of the religion of the Church of England, competent to teach the Latin and Greek language, and to receive £100 out of the public treasury, for which he is to teach 12 scholars, and to be entitled to receive at the rate of £4 per annum for all others." Provision is also made "for an usher to teach writing, arithmetic, accounts, surveying, navigation, and practical mathematics." Other acts were passed from time to time establishing Free Schools—that is, endowed schools to teach the languages, and free or open, although not gratuitous, to certain persons in other parishes. In 1811 provision was made for the education of children in the country districts by an act "to establish Free Schools throughout the State." By this act about 7,000 children were instructed gratuitously in private schools at an expense of about $40,000 a year.

In 1833, Thomas S. Grimke, on the occasion of a visit from Josiah Holbrook to the State, prepared an elaborate paper on the Lyceum in its adaptation to every portion of South Carolina. His death undoubtedly arrested the movement before it became organized and effective.

In May, 1849, Mr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, on the occasion of a visit to Charleston, on invitation, addressed the "Thursday Evening Club" on the distinctive features of a system of public schools for cities; and out of that evening's conversation and subsequent discussion and correspondence grew up the system of Public Schools which existed in Charleston at the breaking out of the Secession War.

MISSOURI.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE early "revival" movement, so marked in many of the States by the formation of Societies, Lyceums, and other forms of mutual effort towards educational improvement, extended even into the State of Missouri, though it left no permanent results, and almost the only records that remain are the call of a State Educational Convention, to meet at St. Louis on the 15th of June, 1834, and the report of the organization of several local associations, of which those in Montgomery and Warren counties are especially mentioned.

The first "Teachers' Association" was formed in 1848, in connection with the Public Schools of the city of St. Louis. Owing to the difficulty experienced in procuring suitable instructors for these schools, the Board of Directors, mainly through the influence of John H. Tice, one of their number, and against the bitter opposition of some of the members and of the public, determined to send an agent to the East and there procure the requisite number of professional teachers. This was done, and in August, 1848, fifteen new teachers were installed, who "immediately established friendly, cordial, and confidential relations with the other instructors; consultations for mutual information and interchange of views took place; a Teachers' Association was soon formed; and by its deliberations a system was elicited which will stand a comparison with the best system any where. To the formation of this Association must be assigned the most powerful impulse to the improvement of the schools, the starting point of the rapid progress they have since made, and the unequaled character for efficiency which they have now established." In addition to the usual exercises of the Association, a "Teachers' Institute," the first on the western bank of the Mississippi, was held by the St. Louis teachers during the last week of December, 1852. The publication of the "*Teacher*" was also commenced in January, 1853, under the editorship of J. H. Tice, Secretary of the City Board of Public Schools.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The State Superintendent of Common Schools had, in his several Reports subsequent to 1850, recommended the holding of Teachers' Institutes and their encouragement by the State. In 1855, several County Associations of this kind had been formed, some of which were very fully attended. The first State Convention of Teachers was held at St. Louis, May 22d and 23d, 1856, by more than one hundred delegates, and was organized by appointing Rev. W. T. Lucky, President; W. H. Hopson, Vice-President; and W. C. Willcox and J. H. Reed, Secretaries. The educational wants of the State were presented in the opening address by Rev. W. G. Eliot. The subjects proposed for action were the organization of a State Teachers' Association, and of Teachers' Institutes, and the establishment of a State Normal School, and of an Educational Journal. The first was effected by the adoption of a constitution and the election of the following officers:—W. T. Lucky, *President.* J. A. Gilfillan, E. S. Mitchell, J. L. Tracy, M. Harmon, W. H. Hopson, J. Baldwin, and J. H. Carlton, *Vice-Presidents.* W. C. Willcox and E. May, *Secretaries.* The State organization was no sooner completed than committees were appointed to carry out the other measures. Addresses were delivered during the session by Hon. Horace Mann and Rev. Dr. Post.

SECOND ANNIVERSARY.—At St. Louis, May 6th to 8th, 1857. The President, W. T. Lucky, delivered an address on the "*Origin and Objects of the Association.*" Mr. C. S. Pennell also gave an address on the "*Obligations of Teachers to themselves,*" and essays were read by W. C. Willcox, on "*Physical Education;*" by W. H. Lewis, on the "*Philosophy of Language;*" and by J. D. Low, on the "*Relative Duties of Teachers and Parents.*" The reports of committees showed that nothing had been done since the previous meeting, beyond effecting a delay in the passage of a bill by the Legislature for establishing a Normal Department in connection with the State University, the support of which was to be drawn from the Common School Fund, and which made no provision for the training of female teachers. A committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature upon the subject. Mr. W. S. Baker was appointed State Agent, with a salary of $1,500, to coöperate with the State Superintendent, to canvass the State, visit and confer with County Commissioners, hold Teachers' Institutes, and employ all other available means to awaken an interest in education throughout the State. It was also determined to establish a

monthly journal; a publishing committee was appointed; and the "*Missouri Journal of Education*" was accordingly commenced in July, 1857, Ira Divoll acting as local editor. W. H. Lewis, of Independence, was elected President of the Association for the ensuing year.

The publication of the Journal was continued but for a single number, when the want of sufficient encouragement compelled a transfer of the subscription list to the "*Missouri Educator*," which was commenced in May, 1858, by T. J. Henderson. Financial difficulties also induced the State Agent to suspend his labors, after four months spent in different parts of the State.

THIRD ANNIVERSARY.—At Jefferson City, July 6th to 8th, 1858. The attendance was not large, embracing few common school teachers; colleges and private schools had the largest representation. Still the exercises were of great general interest and value. Addresses were delivered by Richard Edwards, on "*Normal Education;*" by W. H. Lewis, on "*Primary Teaching;*" by T. J. Henderson, on "*Teaching as a Profession;*" and by J. W. Sutherland. Prof. Swallow submitted a report on "*Agricultural Education*," which resulted in a memorial to the Legislature for the endowment of Agricultural Departments in the colleges of the State. J. L. Tracy read a report in favor of a State Normal School, which being warmly opposed by members who approved of Normal Departments in already established colleges, was finally adopted after a long discussion. Discussions were also held on the subject of the "*Coeducation of the Sexes;*" on "*Text-books;*" and on the "*Phonetic System.*" The formation of Teachers' Institutes, through the influence of the State Superintendent and the Vice-Presidents of the Association, was strongly urged. Prof. G. C. Swallow, of Columbia, was elected President.

During the following year, Mr. J. L. Tracy acted as nominal agent of the Association, under the direction of the State Superintendent, and visited twenty different counties. Several County Institutes were organized and well attended.

FOURTH ANNIVERSARY.—At St. Louis, July 6th and 7th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Hon. Edward Bates, on "*Education in Missouri;*" by Chancellor J. G. Hoyt, on "*The Thinker in his Relations to the Community;*" and by Rev. C. A. Staples, on "*Professional Teaching.*" Essays and discussions were had on "*School Government*," by C. F. Childs; on the "*Missouri Common School System*," by W. B. Starke; on "*Comparative Philology*," by W.

T. Harris; and on "*Private School Examinations*," by W. T. Lucky. Mr. C. S. Pennell, of St. Louis, was elected President.

A Convention of the Teachers of North-western Missouri was held at Liberty, August 31st, 1859.

FIFTH ANNIVERSARY.—At St. Louis, July 10th to 12th, 1860. Lectures were delivered by the President, C. S. Pennell, on "*English Literature*;" by Capt. Hammersley, on "*Physical Education*;" and by Rev. Dr. Wines, on "*Universal Education as the Surest Road to Wealth*." Essays were read by J. A. Martling, on the "*Legal Powers of Teachers*;" by Mrs. Spencer Smith, on "*Progress*;" by C. F. Childs, on "*The Teacher a Student*;" and by Miss M. J. Cragin, on "*Success in Teaching*." The report of J. L. Tracy on a State Normal School gave rise to the most important discussion of the session. Mr. Tracy also made report of his operations during the year, as Agent of the Association. The following officers were elected:—Prof. James Love, *Pres.* C. L. Oliver, Prof. F. T. Kemper, Prof. C. M. Pritchett, Prof. J. C. Bruner, Prof. W. H. Lewis, J. K. Kidd, and A. A. Wilson, *Vice-Pres.* W. T. Harris and R. Edwards, *Sec.* L. Kingsbury, *Treas.*

The attendance at the meetings of the Association had for several years been diminishing and the time of meeting was now changed from July to December, with the hope of increasing its numbers. But the political troubles which soon began to agitate the State, prevented the meeting appointed to be held in December, 1860, and the Association has not since been reorganized.

DELAWARE.

SCHOOL CONVENTION OF NEWCASTLE COUNTY

THE State Constitution of Delaware, formed in 1792, enjoined it as a duty of the Legislature "to provide for the establishment of schools," and an Act of 1796 made an essay towards this establishment by laying the foundation of a school fund. It was not until 1829, two hundred years from the first settlement of the State, that a common school law was passed, distributing the income of the school fund to the districts and giving them the power of taxation for the purpose of raising the additional sums necessary for the support of the schools. This fund was insufficient, the districts were unwilling to tax themselves to supply the deficiency, and the schools declined. The division of the surplus revenue in the United States Treasury in 1836 among the several States prompted the friends of education here, as in other States, to make an effort to secure it for the benefit of schools. In pursuance of this object, a convention of delegates from the several districts of Newcastle county was called and met at Wilmington on the 15th of December, 1836—present, 123 delegates from forty-eight of the seventy-two districts. Hon. Willard Hall was chosen President, Thomas Robinson and William Kennedy, Vice-Presidents, and John Higgins and Jonas Pusey, Secretaries. Messrs. Willard Hall, E. Tatnall, Dr. J. W. Thomson, and W. A. Mendenhall were chosen a committee to present a memorial to the Legislature, praying that body to accept the State's share of the surplus revenue and appropriate the income thereof to the school-districts for the purpose of maintaining and improving the public schools in the districts. A committee was also appointed to wait on the General Assembly and further the objects of the Convention. On the 22d of February following, an act was accordingly passed by the Legislature, dividing the revenues of the surplus fund equally between the counties and providing for its application principally to school purposes.

The convention also resolved that an annual "*School Convention of Newcastle County*" should be held in Wilmington, composed of

two or more delegates from each district, together with all friends of popular education, and the district clerks and school commissioners. Though no constitution or formal organization was adopted, yet this Convention continued to hold its annual meetings regularly for twenty years, with results in no small degree beneficial to the interests of education throughout the county. Without giving a minute account of the proceedings of these several meetings, it will suffice to notice the more important measures that were acted upon and the results effected.

One of the greatest difficulties in the way of improvement was the repugnance of the people to taxation. At the meeting in 1837 it was sought to render the collection of a school tax, whenever voted by a district, less troublesome and offensive by a provision of the Legislature that its collection should be made conjointly with other taxes and not by special collectors. This recommendation was reported at subsequent meetings and the object was finally effected in 1843. That taxation should be obligatory upon the districts was not desired even by many of the most earnest friends of public schools. In January, 1843, a State School Convention was held at Dover, at which the existing school law was made the subject of discussion, and, as the only amendment which met with favor, the proposition to lay a tax of at least fifty dollars upon each district, for the benefit of the school, was at first adopted, but afterwards, upon reconsideration, was rejected by a very large majority. It seemed inconsistent with republican principles that taxation for school purposes should be other than optional with each district, and the general opinion is shown in the following extract:—"The Report of the Massachusetts Board of Education declares that the cardinal principal which lies at the foundation of their educational system is, that all the children of the State shall be educated by the State. Let it be distinctly remarked that this is not the principle of our school system; but that our school system is founded upon the position that the people must educate their own children and that all the State should do, or can do for any useful effect, is to organize them into communities so as to act together for that purpose, and help and encourage them to act efficiently. To the full extent of its power the State has granted this help and encouragement by fair division among all of the school-districts of the income of the school fund. The school of every district is thus in the power of its school voters; they can have as good a school as they please, or an inferior school, or no school. The whole responsibility rests upon them, and the measure of that responsibility is the

welfare or calamity of all the children of the district." But the actual working of this principle wrought a gradual change in the views of many. In 1845 and again in 1846, in order to elicit the public feeling upon the subject, it was recommended to the voters in each district to hold a special meeting to consider the expediency of legalizing a general system of taxation, and though no change was effected in the law, yet a favorable change was gradually created in the popular feeling. The amount raised by tax in Newcastle county in 1852 was nearly double that of 1832, while in Kent and Sussex counties it had increased but little more than one-fifth, and was actually less than in 1841. In 1853 a committee was appointed to obtain a law authorizing the school taxes within Newcastle county to be levied as other taxes without vote of the school-districts.

The subject of the training of teachers for the public schools and the establishment of a Normal School was discussed in the early meetings of the Convention, but after an adverse report in 1838 from Willard Hall and others, it was deemed inexpedient to take any special measures with respect to such a school. Numerous resolutions were passed favoring the procuring of libraries, the formation of lyceums, and the circulation of the New York Common School Assistant. Committees were appointed for the examination of teachers and the visitation of schools; and efforts were made towards the procurement of a law creating a Board of Examiners in each Hundred, and requiring greater strictness in the examination of teachers. In 1844 the question of a State Superintendency of Schools was raised but indefinitely postponed; and in the following years the formation of Teachers' Societies was recommended. In 1846 a resolution was adopted, "approving the effort making by a portion of the colored population to confer upon their children the advantages of education, and urging upon them this important duty as a means of improving their moral and social condition."

In 1847 an "Association" of the teachers of the county was formed at Wilmington on the 14th of October, called together by the Convention, for the purpose of mutual benefit. It was still the opinion of the Convention that "the teachers of our youth should be formed in our communities in the spirit of the times under the influences of public opinion, and not educated in normal schools, a distinct profession with views and sentiments peculiar to them as a body," and no method of training was thought more practical and useful than mutual conference and discussion. This Association, however was but of brief continuance. In 1854 an Association was

again attempted, but from want of interest on the part of teachers and others it was discontinued. In 1850 and later years attempts were made to procure the means for sustaining a School Agent, first by private subscription, then by application to the Legislature, but unsuccessfully. In the same year attention was called to the subject of school architecture, and the improvement of the school-houses of the county was made a prominent object of the Convention.

The office of County Superintendent had existed since 1829, but its duties were limited and did not include the visitation or supervision of schools. In 1853 it was sought to obtain from the Legislature the appointment of a Superintendent, with a definite salary, who should visit the districts and schools of the county, collect and diffuse information, and by private intercourse and public addresses excite a deeper interest in the general interests of the schools. In 1854 the attempt was repeated and a bill drafted including also other proposed amendments to the school law, which bill passed the House but was defeated in the Senate. Upon the resignation of Hon. Willard Hall who had for many years held the office under the old law, and who had labored in the cause of education with untiring patience, Dr. A. H. Grimshaw was appointed to the office by the Governor in 1855 and made a full report to the next Convention, upon the condition of schools and the subject of education generally. Besides the unsuccessful attempt in 1854 to establish a Teachers' Institution, the publication of an educational monthly, the "*Delaware School Journal*," was commenced, under the editorship of Dr. A. H. Grimshaw and others, but it was not continued beyond a few numbers, for want of sufficient encouragement.

The last meeting of the Convention was held in 1855. Hon. Willard Hall had been annually reëlected its President, with scarcely an exception. Dr. Arnold Naudain held the office in 1839 and '40, and H. F. Askew in 1847. To the published proceedings of the Convention of each year, it had been the custom of the President to append remarks relating to the action of the Convention and the wants of the public schools. These reports doubtless added much to the beneficial influence of the Convention upon the educational interests of the State.

TEXAS.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS.

IMMEDIATELY after the annexation of Texas to the United States, a movement was commenced for inaugurating a more efficient system of public instruction than had previously existed, and a few individuals, who had long felt a deep interest in the cause of education, began to correspond and interchange sentiments upon the subject. The result was a call for the friends of education to meet in Houston on the 9th of January, 1846. A large number assembled and organized by appointing Chauncey Richardson, President, and P. W. Gray, Secretary. The principal results of their action were the recommendation of a uniform series of text-books, the appointment of a Board of Examiners to examine and recommend teachers, the adoption of a memorial to the Legislature, and the appointment of committees to report at a future meeting upon various subjects assigned. The second meeting was held on the 21st of February, 1846, at Austin, with delegates present from nine counties. Reports were received from Rev. C. Gillett, on a "*Systematic Mode of Education*," and on "*Teaching and Providing Teachers;*" and from H. F. Gillett, on "*School Government.*" At an adjourned meeting held on the 24th of February, a permanent Society was formed, under the name of the TEXAS LITERARY INSTITUTE, whose object was declared to be "to promote, by every laudable means, the general interests of education throughout the State of Texas." The constitution was signed by thirty-two members, and the following officers were elected:—Rev. Chauncey Richardson, *President.* Rev. Isaac Henderson and Dr. Ashbel Smith, *Vice-Presidents.* John Sayles and George Fisher, *Secretaries.* Rev. W. M. Tryon, *Treasurer.*

The first Annual Meeting was convened at Houston, Oct. 5th, 1846, when the annual address was delivered by Rev. J. Henderson, and reports were received from Rev. C. Gillett, on a "*Course of Study for Common Schools;*" from H. H. Allen, on the "*Establishment of School Towns;*" and from Rev. J. W. Miller, on "*School-houses and Grounds.*" A committee was appointed to pre-

pare an address to the people on the subject of public instruction, which address was afterwards prepared and published by Messrs. C. Gillett and Richardson. The former officers were reëlected. In accordance with the action of the Institute, the publication of the first and only educational periodical of the State was commenced February 1st, 1847, styled the "*Public School Advocate*," under the direction of Messrs. J. W. Miller, P. W. Gray, and H. H. Allen. Probably but a single number was issued. A meeting of the Institute was called to be held at Houston, April 14th, 1847, to be addressed by Dr. Ashbel Smith, Hon. Mr. Wheeler, Gen. H. McLeod, and Dr. Starr. Reports were also to be made by Messrs. John Sayles, W. W. Swain, J. C. Walbridge, and Mr. McNair. None of the subsequent records of the Institute are at hand.

The history of other educational conventions in Texas is brief. At a mass meeting of the friends of learning, held at Austin, Jan. 23d, 1854, a Central Committee of Education was appointed, consisting of Rev. J. W. Philips, W. M. Baker, Rev. D. Baker, D. D., E. Walbridge, Andrew Neil, Rev. J. B. Smith, and L. C. Cunningham. They were directed to correspond with the friends of education throughout the State, in order to arouse and unite them in the cause of education, and also to call a State Educational Convention. This Convention was fixed to meet at Huntsville on the 16th of June, 1854. We are unable to give a statement of its proceedings or results.

ALABAMA.

STATE EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.

THE Convention which gave rise to the Alabama Educational Association, and which is the earliest public educational meeting of which we find record, met in Selma on the 24th of July, 1856, in response to a call signed by a large number of teachers of the State. The whole number of teachers present was forty-seven. Dr. L. C. Garland, President of the State University, was made chairman; a constitution was adopted, and the STATE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION was organized by the election of Dr. L. C. Garland, *President;* W. F. Perry, State Superintendent, and W. T. Walthall, *Vice-Presidents;* Rev. B. F. Larrabee and M. F. Woodruff, *Secretaries;* and J. T. Dunklin, *Treasurer.* Addresses were delivered by Prof. J. Darby, on "*Female Colleges as they are, and as they ought to be;*" by W. F. Perry, on the "*Common School System of Alabama;*" and by Dr. Garland, on a "*Collegiate Course of Study.*" The latter address was published.

SECOND ANNUAL SESSION.—At Marion, July 20th and 21st, 1858. The proceedings were not published. The "*Alabama Educational Journal*" was commenced in October, 1858, in accordance with a resolve of the Association; Noah K. Davis, editor. It was kept in existence two years. The attempt was a creditable one and the result as favorable as was to be expected under the difficulties and discouragements that attended it. Prof. J. W. Pratt, of the State University, was elected President.

THIRD ANNUAL SESSION.—At Marion, July 19th and 20th, 1859. Thirty-seven members were present. Addresses and reports were made by Capt. R. T. Nott, on the "*Exact Relation of the Teacher to his Patrons;*" by Rev. Dr. Manly, on the "*Public Free Schools of Charleston;*" by Prof. J. W. Pratt, on "*The Teacher an Artist;*" by Prof. J. B. Dodd, on "*Mathematics;*" by Mr. Tharin, on "*The Human Mind;*" and by Messrs. Round and Erickson, on "*Vocal Music in Schools.*" Free discussion was had upon these and other subjects. Prof. J. W. Pratt was reëlected [illegible]

"Not one-fourth of the committees, appointed to investigate and introduce important topics, had prepared any report whatever; many were absent. Not one-fourth of those who had been appointed and consented to address the assembled teachers, presented themselves or offered an excuse. Places were simply vacant. No letter of apology, no word of encouragement came up to us. The few present consisted of two classes—those whose liberal views and devotion to the general interests of the cause would have carried them any where to strike a blow for its good, and those who had been persuaded by the others to come up and help, and for the first time to look into and take part in these good movements. The first class came away profoundly discouraged and weakened; the second returned home, some not waiting for the close, offended that they had been dragged through sun and rain to attend to such trifling."

Fourth Annual Meeting.—At Talladega, July 17th, 1860. The attendance was very small, not over twenty members being present. No report of its proceedings, or of any subsequent meeting, is found.

County Teachers' Associations were formed in the year following November, 1856, in Mobile, Dallas, Talladega, Coosa, Greene, Tuscaloosa, Franklin, and Shelby counties, and various others in the following years, of which we have no record. These were formed in accordance with the School Law of 1856, which made it the duty of the County Superintendents to hold annual conventions of the teachers of the county and to provide beforehand, as far as possible, for the delivery of lectures upon topics connected with schools and education. The interest in them was, however, seldom maintained and their history was but a repetition, only more brief, of that of the State Association.

MARYLAND.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE educational history of Maryland until recently shows few records of conventions or associations for the advancement of schools or improvement of teachers. The State has, however, the honor of having been one of the first to establish the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction. This was done by an act of the Legislature of December, 1825, and accordingly Mr. Littleton Dennis Teackle was appointed to the position, who made two reports for the years 1827 and 1828. These reports are occupied with the details of a proposed general system of monitorial instruction, and the establishment of a Central School for Teachers, with branches in the several counties, is mentioned as a measure that would be at some time indispensable. The office was soon afterwards abolished. The monitorial system was retained in all the public schools of the city of Baltimore until 1839, when it was wholly discontinued and with the best results. Attempts have been made at various times to improve the system of public schools throughout the State, with but little effect.

There existed in 1843 a "*Maryland Institute of Education*," of which, however, we have very little information, more than that a "*Plan for a System of Public Education*" was drawn up by a committee from its members, and submitted to the General Assembly. This committee consisted of Messrs. O. W. Treadwell, S. F. Streeter, John F. Hey, Aaron B. Hoyt, and R. H. Ball, all of them teachers of good standing in Baltimore. The main feature in their Plan is the legal recognition of Teaching as a Profession, and creating in each county a Board of Examiners, composed exclusively of practical teachers, whose certificate shall be the only passport to employment.

The "*Maryland Institute for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts*" was organized on the 12th of January, 1848, and has since been very active in carrying out its designs, for which purpose it has established a library, had regular courses of popular lectures, organized a chemical department, and also a school of design, with a distinct department for women.

The "*Public School Teachers' Association of Baltimore*" was formed on the 28th of March, 1862, under the auspices of the Board of Public School Commissioners of that city, who permitted the schools to be closed on the first Friday afternoon of each month, in order to allow the teachers to attend the meetings of the Association. In December, the organization having become thoroughly matured, this permission was withdrawn. The Association is divided into sections on the following subjects, viz.:—1. Teaching and Governing; 2. Mathematics and Book-keeping; 3. Physics and Natural Science; 4. Grammar and Philology; 5. Belles-Lettres; 6. Mental and Moral Science. Each section controls its own organization, considers and digests all papers, books, questions, suggestions, &c., pertaining to its peculiar subjects, and reports the result of its work at the general meeting of the Association. The Executive Committee also procure lectures, essays, &c., by the members, and questions are presented for general discussion. Among the many able lectures that have been delivered have been the following:—"*Utility of Teachers' Associations*," by Prof. T. D. Baird; "*Duties of the Teacher*," by Prof. D. A. Hollingshead; "*Why do Children go to School*," by Prof. J. B. Wentz; "*A Well Regulated and Efficient Plan of Education*," by Dr. James McIntyre; "*Character and Poetry of Byron*," by Prof. J. A. Morgan; "*Orthography*," by John Basil, Jr.; "*Moral Education*," by Prof. P. R. Lovejoy; "*Woman*," by William R. Creery; "*Memory*," by George S. Grape; "*Teachers as they Appear in Works of Fiction*," by M. A. Newell; "*Mathematics*," by Prof. W. A. Wilte; "*School Government*," by George M. Ettinger; "*Popular Ideas of Teaching*," by George Scott; "*Errors in the Present System of Education*," by Prof. William Elliott; "*Education the Safeguard of the Republic*," by William H. Myers.

The Association has twice secured an increase of salary for the public School teachers of Baltimore, and its influence has been favorably felt wherever it has been directed. Its Presidents have been Thomas D. Baird, elected in 1862; William R. Creery, in 1863; and William Elliott, in 1864.

The "*Baltimore County Teachers' Association*" was organized, April 9th, 1860, with Samuel Ringgold, *President;* D. W. Pearch, *Vice-President;* T. T. S. Richards, *Secretary;* and Mrs. E. M. Soper, *Treasurer.* Since its organization the Association has held regular quarterly meetings for lectures and essays upon various subjects by its members or by invitation, interspersed with exercise in reading, recitation, and extemporaneous remarks and discussion.

The number of members at its organization was twenty-two. The beneficial influence of the Association is seen in the marked increase of professional pride manifested by its members.

The act of March, 1865, "providing a uniform system of Free Public Schools for the State of Maryland," is a great improvement on the former defective system. The office of Superintendent of Public Instruction is reëstablished, provision is made not only for a liberal support of schools by property taxation, and an efficient system of supervision, but for a State Normal School, for school libraries, and for Teachers' Institutes, and also for the organization of Teachers' Associations. Rev. L. Van Bokkelen, D. D., has been appointed Superintendent and has entered actively upon the duties of his office.

CONVENTION AND ASSOCIATION OF COUNTY SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

A convention of the County School Commissioners, who had been elected under the new law in all the counties of the State, with one exception, was held at the call of the Superintendent at Baltimore, on the 22d and 23d of August, 1865. Lieutenant Governor C. C. Cox was elected President; Dr. Joel Hopkins and Dr. S. A. Harrison, Vice-Presidents; Thomas A. Boullt and Albert Small, Secretaries. Much of the time of two days was spent in discussions tending to a clearer understanding of the school law and its harmonious and uniform administration. The principal points discussed were the position of the presidents of the County Board of Commissioners—the method of determination and payment of teachers' salaries—where, how, and when teachers should be examined—salaries of Commissioners—text-books—and plans of school-houses and furniture. A committee was appointed (Hon. J. L. Bokkelen, F. A. Ellis, Dr. Harrison, Rev. O. Perinchief, Dr. L. H. Steiner, and Howard Weeks) to report upon the changes that may be desirable in the School Law; and in relation to the education of the colored population, a resolution was passed that the General Assembly should require separate schools to be established for the purpose, and that by relieving counties from the obligation to educate colored children, an unjust discrimination had been made in favor of those counties in which a large number of that class of children reside. An "*Association of the Commissioners of Public Schools of Maryland*" was resolved upon, and a committee appointed to prepare a constitution, to report at a meeting to be called by the officers. This meeting was held in Annapolis on the 14th of January, 1866, when a permanent organization was effected.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

THE *Columbian Association of Teachers*, designed to embrace in its sphere of operation the cities of Washington, Alexandria, and Georgetown, was formed in December, 1849. The Smithsonian Institution had been established, and the advantages it seemed to offer constituted a strong incentive to the formation of the Association. Prof. Henry readily gave his hearty support and coöperation, and rendered great and valuable service by securing from the Regents the use of a room for the meetings, and by his valuable suggestions, addresses and lectures. For several years he was its President, though rather honorary than active; the Vice Presidents meantime officiating as presidents were Dr. T. Watkins, L. D. Johnson, and Rev. Mason Noble. Its other presidents were Rev. E. R. Lippett, Rev. S. H. Mirrick, O. C. Wright, L. C. Loomis, Z. Richards, and A. C. Richards. Its meetings were continued with varied interest and success until the beginning of the war.

In 1857 a convention was held at Washington, called by a committee of the Association to receive and consider a report of a census which had been taken by the Association of the educational statistics of the city, and to consult upon its general educational interests. The Convention met at the Smithsonian Institute on the 17th, 18th, and 19th of December, Rev. I. C. Bimly, D. D., being chosen President. Addresses were delivered by Rev. Alexander Dimitry, D. D., of Louisiana, on the "*Duties of Parents and Teachers to the Young;*" by R. M. Smith, of Alexandria, on "*Public Education, politically and socially considered;*" by Hon. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, on "*Reformatory Schools;*" by George B. Emerson, of Boston, on the "*Qualifications of the Teacher;*" and by Prof. Henry, on "*Free Evening Instruction.*" Discussions were held upon the "*Responsibility of Teachers for the Moral Education of their Pupils;*" and upon other subjects suggested by the lecturers, and especially upon the report of the Committee upon the condition of education within the City of Washington. Arrangements were made for a series of educational meetings to be held in the several wards of the city, and a committee was appointed to prepare a memorial, setting forth the facts elicited by the Convention.

FLORIDA.

No educational society has existed in the State of Florida for many years. In 1830, public attention was aroused to some extent to the importance of popular education, and the "*Florida Education Society*" was organized at Tallahassee, Jan. 23d, 1831, for collecting and diffusing information, and for the establishment of such a general system of instruction as was suited to the wants and condition of the Territory. The officers elected were:—Davis Floyd, *President*. M. E. Levy, Dr. E. Aiken, and B. D. Wright, *Vice-Presidents*. D. Davidson and E. B. Perkins, *Secretaries*. J. F. Field, T. R. Betton, J. P. Duval, W. Williams, and P. O. Hays, *Directors*. An auxiliary society was also formed at St. Augustine.

The result speedily proved that the task undertaken by these Societies was beyond their strength. The most active and influential members became soonest discouraged, and in the next year there were left but five members in the ranks of the State Society. These agreed, if it could be done at an expense within their means, to purchase a small tract of land and form a small Manual Labor School near Tallahassee. The success of their project may be readily conjectured.

ARKANSAS.

So great has been the indifference that has, for various reasons, always existed in the State of Arkansas upon the subject of education, that almost nothing has been done by teachers or others in the form of united action for educational improvement. Probably the only movement worthy of mention was the gathering of a County Teachers' Meeting at Helena on the 7th of October, 1860, which is spoken of as the first that had ever been held in the State. There were but few teachers present. Hon. W. K. Sebastian made an address upon the necessity of a uniform system in text-books, as well as in methods of teaching, and a course of English studies was adopted for the public schools of the county. A committtee was also appointed to draft a constitution for a "*Teachers' Association*," to be held on the 6th of January following. But the first was here to be also the last.

MISSISSIPPI.

There is no record of any Educational Convention having ever been held in the State of Mississippi, nor of any general movement among the teachers for self-improvement. A few County Teachers' Associations were formed in recent years—the only ones of which mention is found are those of Pontitoc and Tishimingo counties, formed in 1858–9.

LOUISIANA.

Little has ever been done in the State of Louisiana to direct public attention to the subject of education. The first movement towards united effort by those interested in education, was made in 1838, when a few friends of the cause met for consultation in the chapel of Centenary College, in Jackson. After an interesting discussion upon the importance and expediency of forming an association, and the best and most efficient method of accomplishing its purposes, it was resolved to form a State Society. At a subsequent meeting, held Dec. 10th, 1838, the Society was organized under the name of the "*Louisiana Institute for the Promotion of Education*," by the election of the following officers:—Hon. L. Drury, *President.* Prof. A. D. Wooldridge, *Vice-President.* H. Dwight and Prof. H. H. Gird, *Secretaries.* Dr. W. M. Carpenter, Rev. J. Shannon, Prof. M. Cubi, Rev. J. A. Ronaldson, and P. Fishburne, *Executive Committee.* The Society was to meet semi-annually, but how much was effected by it or how long it continued in operation, we have not the means of determining.

A State Teachers' Association was formed in 1856, but in the want of any published records, no information can be given of its origin or history.

OEEGON STATE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The Oregon State Educational Association and Teachers' Institute held an annual session at Eugene City, August 5th, 6th, and 7th, 1863, and elected the following officers:—Hon. A. C. Gibbs, of Portland, *President.* Prof. B. Cornelius, Oswego; Prof. E. A. Tanner, Forest Grove; J. B. Underwood, Eugene City, *Vice-Presidents.* Prof. T. H. Crawford, Sublimity, *Corresponding Secretary.* A. C. Daniels, Salem, *Recording Secretary.* Prof. E. P. Henderson, Harrisburg, *Treasurer.* A. C. Daniels, C. T. Finlayson, and F. Stilson, *Executive Committee.* As a part of the exercises, an interesting discussion was held upon the duty of the State to establish and support common schools. There was a fair attendance of teachers and of others interested in the cause of education.

A semi-annual session of the Association was held at Corvallis, February 16th to 19th, and a regular annual meeting at Albany, Linn county, August 2d to 5th, 1864.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF WEST VIRGINIA.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.

THE newly organized State of West Virginia, admitted into the Union June 20th, 1863, one of the substantial first-fruits of the Rebellion to the cause of freedom, has been true to its early proclivities, as indicated in the article upon the Educational Conventions of the State of Virginia, in making constitutional provision for a thorough and efficient system of free schools. A considerable portion of the revenue of the State is set apart for a School Fund; general taxation of persons and property for the support of schools is authorized, and township taxation is required; and a General Superintendent, with County Superintendents, are to be elected by the people. The Legislature is commanded to foster and encourage moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement; and to make suitable provision for the blind, mute, and insane, and for the organization of such institutions of learning as the best interests of general education in the State may demand.

In accordance with these constitutional requirements, an Act was passed on the 10th of December, 1863, providing for the establishment of a system of Free Schools, which has grown into successful operation, and under which Rev. W. R. White was in 1864 elected State Superintendent.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

Through the agency and influence of the Superintendent, a State Teachers' Association has been formed. Pursuant to a call issued by him on the 20th of July, 1865, an Educational Convention met at Wheeling on the 1st of August, of which Rev. Mr. White was appointed Chairman, and R. C. Arbuckle, Secretary. Messrs. Col. J. C. Lininger, R. C. Arbuckle, and L. Vincent were appointed to draft a constitution, which was adopted after a warm discussion upon the qualifications that should be required for membership. An attempt was made to restrict actual membership to teachers holding valid certificates, which failed and the Association was

made open to all teachers and active friends of education. The members of the Executive Committee are required to be active teachers. After the adoption of the Constitution, the organization of the Association was perfected by the election of the following officers:—W. R. White, *President.* Rev. E. Strickler and William P. Willey, *Vice-Presidents.* R. C. Arbuckle, *Recording Secretary.* G. C. Sturgiss, *Corresponding Secretary.* Hon. E. B. Hall, *Treasurer.* Miss Mary H. Ray, Col. J. C. Lininger, and R. C. Arbuckle, *Executive Committee.*

Subjects were assigned for discussion at the next annual meeting, and the Association adjourned, after addresses by Messrs. W. R. White, Farris, Col. J. C. Lininger, and Rev. Levi Wheelock. The next annual meeting was appointed for the 7th of August, 1866.

KANSAS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

STATE CONVENTION.

THE earliest Teachers' Association in Kansas was formed by the teachers of Leavenworth, on the 11th of March, 1863. One of their first efforts was to effect an organization of the teachers of the State, for which object an appeal was made through the press and a circular issued to all the teachers and County Superintendents, calling a State Convention. This circular was signed by H. D. McCarthy, R. W. Putnam, Rev. J. G. Reaser, John Dotter, and T. Sinks, M. D., *Executive Committee.* The Convention met at Leavenworth, Sept. 29th, 1863, thirty-five delegates being present from eleven counties. Senator T. H. Baker was appointed Chairman, and Orlando Sawyer, Secretary. Addresses were delivered by Dr. Tiffin Sinks, on the "*Mosaic Cosmogony;*" by C. Clarkson, on "*Education;*" by H. D. McCarthy, on "*Primary Instruction;*" by President Joseph Denison, on "*Object Teaching;*" and by Prof. W. Foster, on "*True Manhood, as applied to Popular Education;*" and also lectures upon Arithmetic, Penmanship, Grammar, Orthography, Geography, and Elocution, by Messrs. Prof. R. W. Putnam, Prof. C. E. Pond, Prof. T. H. Hunting, O. Sawyear, Prof. J. E. Platt, and T. H. Baker, respectively.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized by the election of the following officers:—Isaac T. Goodnow, Superintendent of Public Instruction, *President.* O. Sawyer, W. R. Davis, D. D., T. M. Gruwell, Mrs. D. M. Spooner, Miss Carrie Collins, J. J. Banister, T. H. Baker, Joseph Denison, Mrs. E. H. Mabie, Miss E. L. Moss, *Vice-Presidents.* O. Sawyer and R. W. Putnam, *Secretaries.* J. E. Platt, *Treasurer.* Messrs. H. D. McCarthy, Rev. D. P. Mitchell, Baker, Denison, and Davis, *Executive Committee.*

The publication of the "*Kansas Educational Journal*" was commenced January, 1864, under the direction of the Association and with H. D. McCarthy, Principal of the Leavenworth schools, as principal editor. Associations were also formed in Riley and Ne-

maha counties, and in the following year County Institutes were successfully conducted at Leavenworth, Atchison, and other places.

The second meeting of the Association was held at Topeka, July 19th and 20th, 1864. Lectures were delivered by I. T. Goodnow, State Superintendent, on "*Physical Training*," with practical illustrations and exercises in gymnastics; by T. F. Mudge, State Geologist, on "*Geology;*" and by J. E. Platt, on "*Singing in Primary Schools.*" An essay was also read by Miss E. H. Mabie, on the "*Philosophy of School Government.*" Discussions were held upon "*School Architecture*," and "*Teachers' Institutes;*" the principal subject, however, was that of "*State Teachers' Certificates*," which was finally referred to a committee to report upon at the next meeting. Resolutions were also passed upon the subject of irregular attendance, and recommending the renomination of Hon. I. T. Goodnow to the office of State Superintendent. H. D. McCarthy was elected President.

The third annual session of the Association was held at Atchison, July 26th, 1865. Addresses were given by Rev. William Bishop, on "*Woman, her Sphere and Mission;*" by M. A. Page, on the "*Elementary Sounds of the Language;*" by I. T. Goodnow, on "*Hygiene and Physiology;*" and by Rev. P. McVicar, on "*Free Public Schools.*" Essays were read by Prof. C. Haynes, on the "*Teacher and his Work;*" and by Mrs. O. Sawyer, on the "*Female Teacher; her Moral Influence.*" The affairs of the Educational Journal were discussed and pledges were made for its support. The report of the committee upon State diplomas was received, and after discussion the subject was again referred to a new committee. A discussion was also held upon the true policy of education by the State. Orlando Sawyer was elected President.

The history of education in the State of Kansas shows a wonderfully rapid and gratifying progress. Organized as a territory in 1854, admitted to the Union in 1861, the cause of education has had to contend with the border troubles of 1855 and 1856, the financial crisis of 1857, the drought of 1861, the rebellion of 1861. With seventeen regiments in the field, a frontier State open to invasion on three sides to Indians, bushwhackers, and rebel armies, its safety dependent upon constant vigilance, yet it has a liberal and well-organized school system, State and County Superintendents, a Normal School in process of organization, Teachers' Institutes supported by the State, a State Teachers' Association and Educational Journal, and four colleges with sixteen teachers and 451 students, besides the State Agricultural College with four professors and 107 students.

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible] was b[illegible]
lost his father [illegible] the age of [illegible]
by m[illegible] [illegible]
for [illegible] [illegible]chant's [illegible]
[illegible]
In 18[illegible] [illegible] with the M[illegible]
ry [illegible] walked to Wilbraham [illegible]
place. With this academy he was [illegible]
teacher in the primary and English [illegible]
instructor in the natural sciences [illegible]
cess at Norway, Me., and at West [illegible] Mass. [illegible]
like position in the Providence Sem[illegible] S. Greenwich, R. [illegible]
mained for seven years, establishing [illegible]
[illegible] and skillful experiments [illegible]
Not confining himself to his special [illegible]
[illegible] Greek, mathematics, rhetoric [illegible]
[illegible] self-culture. In 184[illegible]
Arts from the Wesleyan University at [illegible]

In the winter of 1854, with his [illegible]
Colorado, he entered with all his [illegible]
first [illegible] in the "Zion's Her[illegible]
went in advance of a company of [illegible]
present site of Manhattan for their loca[illegible]
der-ruffian raid, and the votes of his company [illegible]
free State members of the first Territorial leg[illegible] A favorite
object of these teachers was the establishment of a great [illegible] coll[illegible] and in
connection with Rev. Mr. Marlatt a site of 160 [illegible] by them, in
185[illegible] the "Bluemont Central College Association [illegible] and in 1860
a building capable of accommodating 4[illegible] [illegible], with a re-
spectable library and apparatus, [illegible] mainly the result of
[illegible] years' untiring effort on the par[illegible] A school of sixty pu-
pils was opened and continued un[illegible] [illegible]titution was transf[illegible]
to the State, entitled the "Kans[illegible] College," and [illegible]
with 90,000 acres of land.

In August, 1856, Mr. Goodnow w[illegible] of the celebrated Lawre[illegible]
Free State Convention; in 185[illegible] [illegible] the convention that [illegible]
Leavenworth Constitution; in 1861 [illegible] was agent of the city of Ma[illegible]
secure the location of the State University, failing through the veto of the

PRESIDENTS OF THE KANSAS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

ISAAC F. GOODNOW, A. M.

ISAAC T. GOODNOW was born at Whitingham, Vt., January 17th, 1814. He lost his father at the age of fourteen and afterwards not only supported himself, by means of farm and factory labor, but aided his mother and sisters. He was for some years merchant's clerk in Marlboro, Vt., and Coleraine, Mass., and meantime spent several winters at school and much time in reading and study. In 1832 he united with the Methodist church and in 1834 after some preliminary study, walked to Wilbraham, Mass., and entered the popular academy in that place. With this academy he was connected until 1848, first as pupil; then as teacher in the primary and English departments, and for the last ten years as instructor in the natural sciences, having previously also taught with much success at Norway, Me., and at West Springfield, Mass. He was now called to a like position in the Providence Seminary at E. Greenwich, R. I., where he remained for seven years, establishing a reputation as a successful teacher, and attractive lecturer and skillful experimenter, and a faithful but kind disciplinarian. Not confining himself to his special department, he conducted classes in other branches, Greek, mathematics, rhetoric, &c., pursuing at the same time a course of untiring self-culture. In 1845 he received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from the Wesleyan University at Middletown.

In the winter of 1854, with his brother-in-law, Rev. Dr. David Dennison of Coleraine, he entered with all his energies into the Kansas struggle, wrote the first appeal in the "Zion's Herald" to the anti-slavery men of New England, went in advance of a company of colonists to the territory, and selected the present site of Manhattan for their location, which was held in spite of a border-ruffian raid, and the votes of his company secured the election of the only free State members of the first Territorial legislature of Kansas. A favorite object of these teachers was the establishment of a great central college, and in connection with Rev. Mr. Marlatt a site of 160 acres was secured by them, in 1858 the "Bluemont Central College Association" was chartered, and in 1860 a building capable of accommodating 400 students was completed, with a respectable library and apparatus, costing about $20,000—mainly the result of three years' untiring effort on the part of Mr. Goodnow. A school of sixty pupils was opened and continued until 1863, when the institution was transferred to the State, entitled the "Kansas State Agricultural College," and endowed with 90,000 acres of land.

In August, 1856, Mr. Goodnow was member of the celebrated Lawrence Free State Convention; in 1857 was delegate to the convention that formed the Leavenworth Constitution; in 1861 he was agent of the city of Manhattan to secure the location of the State University, failing through the veto of the

A. D. McCarty

XV. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS.

During the session of the National Teachers' Association at Harrisburg for 1865, a meeting of State and City Superintendents there present was held, of which Rev. B. G. Northrop, Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, was Chairman, and Rev. L. Van Bokkelen, LL. D., State Superintendent of Public Schools of Maryland, was Secretary. At this Convention it was decided to hold a meeting in February, 1866, at Washington, for the purpose of forming a National Association of School Superintendents, to be composed of those devoted to the supervision of schools in the several States and Cities of the country, and the discussion of topics appropriate to such meeting.

A meeting was accordingly held on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of February, 1866, at which nine States and twenty Cities were represented. The Mayor of the city of Washington gave the Association a cordial welcome, and the President of the United States, on receiving their call, expressed great interest in their object, and in the extension of school instruction to every child in the country, and the Secretary of the Interior expressed to a committee on a memorial to Congress on a National Bureau, who waited upon him, his interest in the success of their memorial.

Papers were read by Charles R. Coburn, Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania, on "*School Statistics;*" by L. Van Bokkelen, State Superintendent of Maryland, on "*The Practicability of Greater Uniformity in the School System of Different States;*" by E. E. White, State Commissioner of Ohio, on "*A National Bureau of Education;*" by C. M. Harrison, State Superintendent of New Jersey, on "*Defects of our State System of Schools;*" and by Newton Bateman, State Superintendent in Illinois, on the "*Leading Features of a Model State School System.*" These subjects were thoroughly discussed and resolutions pertinent to the same were adopted, and several committees were appointed to report more in detail to the next meeting.

A committee consisting of Messrs. White of Ohio, Bateman of Illinois, and Adams of Vermont, were appointed to memorialize Congress on the establishment of a National Bureau of Education.

The following officers were elected for 1866–7:—Birdsey Grant Northrop of Massachusetts, *President;* Charles R. Coburn of Pennsylvania, *Vice-President;* G. H. Hoss of Indiana, *Corresponding Secretary;* L. Van Bokkelen of Maryland, *Recording Secretary;* Duane Doty of Michigan, *Treasurer.*

The memorial of the Association of School Superintendents praying for the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, drawn up in behalf of the committee by Hon. E. E. White of Ohio, was presented in the House of Representatives by Gen. Garfield of Ohio, who at the same time introduced a bill to establish the Bureau in the Department of the Interior. The bill was read twice, referred to a Select Committee of seven and ordered, with the accompanying memorial, to be printed. The committee, consisting of Garfield of Ohio, Patterson of New Hampshire, Boutwell of Massachusetts, Donnelly of Minnesota, Moulton of Illinois, Goodyear of New York, and Randall of Pennsylvania, reported, instead of the bill referred to them creating a Bureau of Educational Statistics under the Secretary of the Interior, in favor of creating a Department of Education, the head of which, appointed by the President, shall report directly to him, as follows:—

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be established, at the City of Washington, a Department of Education, for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, a Commissioner of Education, who shall be intrusted with the management of the department herein established, and who shall receive a salary of five thousand dollars per annum, and who shall have authority to appoint one chief clerk of his department, who shall receive a salary of two thousand dollars per annum; one clerk, who shall receive a salary of eighteen hundred dollars per annum; one clerk, who shall receive a salary of sixteen hundred dollars per annum; one clerk, who shall receive a salary of fourteen hundred dollars per annum; and one clerk, who shall receive a salary of twelve hundred dollars per annum; which said clerks shall be subject to the appointing and removing power of the Commissioner of Education.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That it shall be the duty of the Commissioner of Education to present annually to Congress a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will in his judgment subserve the purpose for which this department is established. In the first report made by the Commissioner of Education under this act, there shall be presented a statement of the several grants of land made by Congress to promote education, and the manner in which these several trusts have been managed, the amount of funds arising therefrom, and the annual proceeds of the same, as far as the same can be determined.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the Commissioner of Public Buildings is hereby authorized and directed to furnish proper offices for the use of the department herein established.

AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, in its general plan, is an educational society of the largest scope, and embraces a section or department specially devoted to the interests of Public Schools, Universities and Colleges, and to all institutions designed for the instruction of youths and adults, and to all agencies which act on or determine the Popular Culture. It had its origin in some preliminary measures taken by a few gentlemen and ladies in Boston, in the Spring of 1865, and in a circular issued at their request by the Massachusetts Board of State Charities, in August, 1865, inviting a conference of persons known to be interested in the subjects embraced in the term Social Science, in Boston. This conference was held on the 4th of October, at the State House, in Boston, and was presided over by Gov. Andrew. After some comparison of views, it was decided to form a society which should embrace the continent in its plan of operations, and enroll members of both sexes from any part of the country—with the following Constitution and officers:

CONSTITUTION.

I. This Society shall be called THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

II. Its objects are, to aid the development of Social Science, and to guide the public mind to the best practical means of promoting the Amendment of Laws, the Advancement of Education, the Prevention and Repression of Crime, the Reformation of Criminals, and the progress of Public Morality, the adoption of Sanitary Regulations, and the diffusion of sound principles on questions of Economy, Trade, and Finance. It will give attention to Pauperism, and the topics related thereto; including the responsibility of the well-endowed and successful, the wise and educated, the honest and respectable, for the failures of others. It will aim to bring together the various societies and individuals now interested in these objects, for the purpose of obtaining by discussion the real elements of Truth; by which doubts are removed, conflicting opinions harmonized, and a common ground afforded for treating wisely the great social problems of the day.

III. This Association shall include four departments: the *first*, for Education; the *second*, for Public Health; the *third*, for Economy, Trade, and Finance; the *fourth*, for Jurisprudence, and the Amendment of Laws.

IV. The officers of this Association shall be a President, four Vice-Presidents, a Recording Secretary, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, and

five Directors, who shall constitute an Executive Committee of thirteen, and shall have power to fill any vacancies in their body which shall occur between the annual meetings. One Vice-President and one Director shall be assigned to each department; and these, together with a Special Secretary for each, shall constitute the Executive Committee for each department. The fifth Director shall act as Librarian. These seventeen officers shall hereafter be chosen annually, on the second Wednesday in October, and shall hold office till their successors are chosen.

V. The Annual meetings of this Association shall be held in Boston, unless some other place is specially designated. Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee, or by the President and any five members of the Committee, at any time and place which they may think proper, but no officers shall be chosen, assessments made, or amendments to the Constitution passed, except at the annual meetings, or some adjournment thereof.

VI. The business of the meetings shall be to hear addresses, reports, and papers, and to conduct discussions on the topics before mentioned. When desirable, the meetings shall be held by departments, over each of which a Vice-President shall preside. All members may take part in the discussions, but no papers shall be read which have not been previously submitted to the Executive Committee in each department.

VII. Before any meeting shall divide into departments, and immediately after the transaction of the regular business, the President shall call for, and the Executive Committee may bring forward, such subjects, not exceeding four in number, as are judged by them of immediate practical importance; and these shall have the precedence of all other subjects during the first session of the meeting.

VIII. Any person may become a member by signing the Constitution, and paying the sum of three dollars, and may continue a member by paying annually such further sum, not exceeding five dollars, as may be assessed on the members by vote of the Association at its annual meeting. Any person may become a life member, exempt from assessments, by the payment of fifty dollars.

IX. Honorary members and corresponding members may be chosen, but shall not exceed the number of the regular members: and members thus chosen shall be exempt from the payment of assessments. All members, both regular, honorary, and corresponding, shall be entitled to receive a copy of the *Transactions* of the Association.

X. The Secretaries, under the direction of the Executive Committee, shall annually select from the papers handed in and the addresses made such as they shall deem proper for publication, and shall publish them, along with a report of the doings and discussions at the meetings during the year. This publication shall be called the *Transactions* of the Association. They may also prepare and issue such other publications as may be deemed best by the Executive Committee.

XI. None but regular members shall have the privilege of voting in the meetings, and none but members of taking part in the discussions, except by invitation of the presiding officer; but it shall be the policy of the Association to admit as many members as possible, and to encourage the coöperation of other societies having kindred objects in view.

XII. Whenever other associations shall be formed in other parts of North America, it shall be the policy of this Association to coöperate with them so far as practicable. For this purpose, the Executive Committee is empowered to call a convention of these associations, or to send delegates to such a convention.

The purposes of the Association are thus set forth by its Committee of Arrangements, in a brief Report to the Conference of October 4:

This Association proposes to afford to all persons interested in human improvement an opportunity to consider social economics as a whole.

The persons composing it are expected to meet together to read papers and pursue discussions, and to seek the assistance of those who have a practical acquaintance with reform, as well as that of purely abstract reasoners.

They are to collect all facts, diffuse all knowledge, and stimulate all inquiry, which have a bearing on social welfare. It has long since been shown that the man of science, who confines himself to a specialty; who does not, at the very least, conquer the underlying principles of other branches of scientific inquiry,—is necessarily misled, and can not avoid frequent mistakes. To have any perception of the perspective of his subject, he must see it in its relation to other subjects. Something like this is true of those who investigate the necessities of society. If they associate themselves together, they have the advantage of each other's knowledge; they do not misunderstand their own relative positions; and they insure an economy of time, labor, and money.

We would offer the widest hospitality to individual convictions, and to untried theories, provided only that such convictions and theories are the fruit of a serious purpose and an industrious life. To entertain the vagaries of the indolent would be at once undignified and unprofitable.

THE FOUR DEPARTMENTS.

1. Under the Department of Education will come every thing relating to the interests of Public Schools, Universities, and Colleges; to Reformatory, Adult, and Evening Schools; to Instruction in the Useful Arts; to Systems of Apprenticeship; to Lyceums, Pulpits, and the formation of Societies for the purposes of Public Instruction. In this department will be debated also all questions relating to Classical, Linguistic, and Scientific Studies, in their proportion to what is called an English Education; and the bearing of the publication of National and Patriotic Memorials upon Popular Culture.

2. Upon the Department relating to Public Health a very large proportion of the popular interest will naturally be fixed. All Sanitary and Hygienic matters will come before it; and what the Sanitary Commission has learned in the last four years will be made available, through its action to the people at large. The subjects of Epidemics, of the origin and Spread of Cholera, Yellow-Fever, and Eruptive Diseases, will be legitimately discussed here. It will consider all questions of Increase of Population, Vaccination, Ventilation of Public and Private Buildings, Drainage, Houses for the Poor, the Management of Cemeteries, Public Baths, Parks and Public Gardens, Places of Recreation, the Management of Hospitals and Insane Asylums, the Adulteration of Food and Drugs, all questions relating to the Duration of Human Life, Sanitary Regulations for the Army and Navy, and all matters of popular interest connected with medical science. We shall look to our ablest physicians and surgeons for contributions to this department.

3. Under the head of Social Economy, we shall consider Pauperism *actual* rather than legal, and the relation and the responsibilities of the gifted and educated classes towards the weak, the witless, and the ignorant. We shall endeavor to make useful inquiries into the causes of Human Failure, and the Duties devolving upon Human Success. We shall consider the Hours of Labor; the Relation of Employers and Employed; the Employment of Women, by itself considered; the Relation of Idleness to Female Crime; Prostitution and Intemperance; Workhouses; Public Libraries and Museums; Savings Banks and Dispensaries. Here, too, will be discussed National Debt; the subjects of Tariff and Taxation; the Habits of Trade; the Quality of our Manufactures; the Control of Markets; the Monopolies in the Sale of Food, or the Production of articles of cómmon use; the Value of Gold; and all questions connected with the Currency.

4. In the Department of Jurisprudence, we aim to consider, first, the absolute Science of Right; and, second, the Amendment of Laws. This department should be the final resort of the other three; for when the laws of Education, of Public Health, and of Sócial Economy, are fully ascertained, the law of the land should recognize and define them all. Under this head will be considered all questions of the justice, the expediency, and the results, of existing statutes; including their administration and interpretation, and especially their bearing on Suffrage, Property, Privilege, Debt, Crime, and Pauperism. Here, then, will come up he vexed questions of Prison Discipline and Capital Punishment."

The Second General Meeting was held in the Hall of the Lowell Institute, on the 27th and 28th of December, 1865—the President, William B. Rogers, LL.D., in the Chair. From the record of the previous meeting, read by the Recording Secretary, Mr. W. F. Sanborn, it appears that the officers are as follows:

President.

Professor William B. Rogers, LL. D.,..1 Temple Place, Boston.

Vice-Presidents.

I. Rev. Thomas Hill, D.D,.....Cambridge, Mass.
II. Charles E. Buckingham,.....911 Washington Street, Boston.
III. Hon. George S. Boutwell,.....Groton, Mass.
IV. Francis Lieber, LL.D., ...48 East 34th Street, New York.

Directors.

I. Rev. Erastus O. Haven, D.D.,....Ann Arbor, Mich.
II. Mrs. Mary Eliot Parkman,.....109 Boylston Street, Boston.
III. David A. Wells, Esq.,.....Custom House, New York.
IV. Hon. Emory Washburn,.....Cambridge, Mass.
V. Mrs. Caroline Healey Dall,.....70 Warren Avenue, Boston.

General Secretaries.

Samuel Eliot, LL.D., *Cor. Secretary*,..30 Chestnut Street, Boston.
F. B. Sanborn, Esq., *Rec. Secretary*,..12 State House Boston.

Special Secretaries.

I. Hon. Joseph White,.....Williamstown, Mass.
II. J. C. White, M.D.....10 Park Place, Boston.
III. Hon. George Walker,.....Springfield, Mass.
IV. Professor Theodore W. Dwight,..Columbia College, New York.

Treasurer.

I. James J. Higginson, Esq.,.....40 State Street, Boston.

The Honorary Members, residing in America, were the following:—Dr. E. Sayre, New York; Samuel B. Ruggles, Esq., New York; Henry Barnard, LL. D., Hartford; A. Bronson Alcott, Esq., Concord; Rev. Frederic N. Knapp, Yonkers, N. Y.; Prof. Daniel Wilson, Toronto, C. W.; Edward A. Meredith, Esq., Quebec, C. E.; Rev. Philip Carpenter, Montreal, C. E.; Henry C. Carey, Esq., Philadelphia; Charles L. Brace, N. Y.

Addresses and Papers were received by the President on "*The Objects of the Social Science Association;*" by Dr. Hill, President of Harvard College, on the "*Problems of Education;*" by Mrs. Dall, on a "*Library devoted to Social Science;*" by Dr. A. B. Palmer, of the State University of Michigan, on "*Sanitary Education;*" by Henry C. Carey, on "*Our National Resources;*" by F. B. Sanborn, on "*Prison Discipline in Europe and America;*" by Dr. I. Ray, Superintendent of the Butler Hospital for the Insane, "*The Isolation of the Insane,*" with the project of a Law for the Regulation of Insane Asylums and Hospitals; by W. P. Atkinson, on "*The English Civil Service Examinations;*" by Charles L. Brace, on "*Sanitary Legislation of England;*" by Dr. Edward Jarvis, on "*The Duration of Human Life.*"

The Normal Schools of Prussia, in their general aims, and special studies and methods, were very materially modified by the "*Regulativ*" of the Minister of Public Instruction, issued in October, 1854, the substance of which we give below, in a very compressed form, from Rev. M. Pattison's Report in 1860.

PRUSSIAN "REGULATIV" OF OCT. 1, 1854.

1. SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.—No systematic *pädagogik*, not even in a popular form, is to be taught in the seminary, but in its place shall be taught art of school management, for not more than two hours per week. This course may contain, in the first year, a simple picture of the Christian school in its first origin, and in its relation to family, church and state; the most important names among the schoolmen since the Reformation may be pointed out, and their influence in forming the elementary school exhibited.

In the second year, the objects and the arrangement of the elementary school may be explained; the proper principles of Christian instruction and discipline expounded.

In the third year, the pupils may be taught their duties as hereafter servants of the state and church,—the means of improving themselves after they leave the seminary,—but the greater part of their time this year will be taken up with preparing for the lessons in the practicing school, and in endeavoring to gain a clear hold of the experiences they make in the same. The separate instruction of each teacher in the seminary is the only introduction which can be given to a good method, where this separate instruction is based on the principle of teaching in the seminary the same matter and in the same form as is required in the elementary school itself. Method, therefore, will no longer be taught as a separate branch, and as a part of "school management,' (*schulkunde*,) will be only so far introduced that the connection between the various parts of elementary teaching may be explained, and the relation in which each part stands to the objects of the school and to the education it is designed to give.

Under the head Education nothing more is necessary to be taught to the elementary teacher than to bring together and explain the texts in Holy Scripture which touch on the subject; the doctrine of sin, of man's need of a Saviour, of the law of Divine Redemption and Sanctification, is a *pädagogik* which requires little elucidation from the sciences of human nature.

Under the head School Education the principles of discipline and teaching should be more minutely gone into, but these lessons should be given in strict connection with the experience obtained by the scholar in the practicing school.

2. RELIGION.—The religious instruction hitherto given in many seminaries, under the title of "Christian Doctrine," is henceforth to be termed in the lesson table "Catechism." Its object is to provide a direction and a firm footing for the individual religious confession of the pupil, through a clear and profound understanding of God's Word, upon the basis of the evangelical doctrines, teaching them through this understanding to know themselves, and their relation to the divine scheme for Salvation, and so laying the only true foundation for their whole Christian life.

As this instruction is not one which the teacher has himself to reproduce in the course of his teaching in the elementary school, it is therefore not subject to the same limitations in all respects as the other portions of the seminary course, which do occur again in the elementary school. Immediately, however, the religious instruction received in the seminary ought to exert a powerful influence on the whole mental life of the teacher; and it is therefore of great importance that sure and abiding results of a Christian confession, conformable with the dogmatic conceptions of the church, should be attempted. The basis of this instruction must be of course the symbolical books of the Evangelical church, *i. e.*, the smaller catechism of Luther, or the Heidelberg catechism.

The exposition necessary for the understanding this catechism will no longer be left to the individual seminary teacher; a manual must be employed for the purpose, which shall contain all that is necessary for a schoolmaster to know. By the advice of the Evangelical church council, we hereby order that the

"Barmen Catechism" be exclusively used in the Evangelical seminaries, and that the teacher be restricted to seeing that the pupils understand the same, and make it their own, without himself adding anything further to its substance.

It is further requisite that the schoolmaster cherish a warm and lively sympathy with the church life of the present. To this end some knowledge of the past is requisite, but no regular chronological course of church history can be given in the seminary. It shall suffice that the pupils learn the most important facts and names in the method of biographical groups, especial reference being had to the Apostolical period, to the Reformation, the present period, and the extension of the church by missionary enterprise, that the future schoolmaster may be thus qualified for a free and disinterested action in the fields both of the foreign and inner mission, the succor of the poor and the forsaken, and other charitable objects. This is an object which can not be attained so much by lessons as by lending appropriate books, or reading passages out of them, by introducing the pupils to practical participation in the various mission enterprises. It would be desirable that the seminaries, as such, should be enrolled as members of the mission unions.

The next point to be attended to in the religious instruction in the seminary is, to bring this instruction, much more than hitherto, into immediate relation to the religious instruction to be given in the elementary school. To this purpose there is required a clear understanding of the duty of the elementary school in respect of the religious instruction it is called upon to give.

First, it must be firmly established that systematic treatment of Christian doctrine, whether in the way of explanation of catechism, or independent expounding of dogmas or Scripture texts, is not the province of the elementary teacher, but of the clergyman. The catechism lesson in the school is only a lesson preparatory to the confirmation preparation to be given by the pastor, and must be restricted to bringing the catechism in its verbal and material meaning before the understanding, and inculcating it in the memory of the children.

Secondly, Scripture History must be treated as the field in which the elementary school has to solve the problem of founding and extending the Christian life of the youth committed to its charge. It must be pre-supposed that this instruction aims neither at moral applications nor at abstract dogmatic inferences, but at leading the children to the sure apprehension and the inward and faithful appropriation of the facts of God's treatment of His chosen people and of the whole human race, and thence to deduce for them the eternal ideas of the most important divine and human things. In this view, the whole course of the Biblical history must be gone through with the seminarist, who shall thus be brought to an immediate and intuitional knowledge of the fundamental ideas and truths, by living in and through each step and each personal relation of the religious life under the leading of God's Word.

The future schoolmaster shall be required to be able to repeat, without book, each Scripture history in the form in which it is taught in the school. He shall be further led to handle each of these histories in detail, and with due reference to the general objects of Scripture teaching, in strict connection with the order of the church's year, so that he may know how to establish a connection of his school with the liturgical life, and make the children conscious participators in the same. From this time forth an indispensable condition of admission into the seminary will be an exact acquaintance with these histories as contained in such manuals of those of Zahn, Preuss, or Otto Schultz, and the ability to recite them by heart.

Here follow specific directions for reading the Bible and the gospels and epistles for the year; for learning texts and hymns. The section concludes thus:—

Religious instruction, conducted according to these principles, will form teachers clearly aware of what they have to do, possessing within themselves a sufficient knowledge of the word, doctrine, and life of the Evangelic church; it will open to them the entrance upon a God-fearing life, in which they may find practical experience of the course by which God leads us from sin to justi-

fication by faith, which worketh by love. To this end, the whole life in the seminary must be brought under the discipline of the Word and the Spirit; teachers and pupils alike must draw from the fountain of grace, and the community must exhibit a pattern of common Christian life.

3. LANGUAGE.—The future teacher is sufficiently qualified to instruct in language and reading in the elementary school, when he knows how to handle rightly the spelling and reading book. The seminaries hitherto have too much neglected to teach a simple method of learning to read. Consequently, years have been spent in acquiring, perhaps very imperfectly, what might be attained in months, viz., the mechanical power of reading. To qualify the schoolmaster in this branch, neither theoretical instruction nor yet practice in the model school will alone suffice; but it will be necessary to take the seminarist in the lowest class through a course of practical lessons in all the details of teaching to read, which practice must be continued till the right method has been thoroughly mastered by each pupil.

Again, in the use of the reading book, it is not enough to instruct the seminarist generally in the mode of interpreting; each portion and passage of the reading book, authoritatively introduced into the schools of the province, must be gone through in the way in which it has to be by them afterwards treated in the elementary school.

In connection with the reading book the pupils must be introduced to German grammar, keeping in view always, that this is a subject which they will not have to teach again in the school.

This is the reading course for the third class. In the two upper classes the object of this branch of instruction is, starting from the knowledge acquired in the lower class, to introduce the pupil to so much of the contents of the language as is necessary for the level of culture, proper for an elementary teacher, and for life among the people. To acquire a good and correct intonation the best method is, to penetrate the sense of what is read. The ability to read difficult passages well forms a tolerably correct measure for judging the amount of formal education possessed by the seminarist. Wackernagel's reading book may be taken, and a selection of pieces in prose and verse made from it, ascending from the easy to the more difficult, and as to their substance bearing on the arrangement of the other parts of the pupils' course. These passages must be worked over till they are thoroughly understood, and have become the learner's own property. Teacher and pupil have here the fittest opportunity to apply the art of concentration of teaching. Within the limits of these passages must be acquired the power of understanding and using his own language so far as it is requisite for the elementary master, without any theoretical lessons of etymology, prosody, lexicology, &c. The remaining contents of the reading book may be afterwards read in a more cursory way, without, however, neglecting to understand what is read, or to practice the reproduction of that which has been read.

The written exercises for the lower and middle class must be set in connection with the reading lesson; but in the upper class they may consist in independent reproduction of single parts out of other parts of the course, or in consideration of questions which concern the profession of teacher. Here also the pupil should learn the written forms of office and business which he may have afterwards occasion for.

The students of each year must have a course of private reading pointed out to them, of which they shall be called on from time to time to give an account to the teacher. In the choice of books for this purpose, regard must be had, not merely to the student's own culture, but to the influence which he may hereafter exercise, beyond the limits of the school, upon the character and morals of the people. Accordingly, the so-called classical literature (of Germany) must be prohibited from forming any part of this private course, and nothing must be admitted into it but what has a tendency to promote church life.

Here follows a list of permissible books.

4. HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—Both these branches shall start from a common point; that of our own country. General history is useless in the seminary, and the instruction shall be confined to German history, with especial

regard to that of Prussia and the history of the province. It must be considered one of the first duties of the school teacher to inculcate in the rising generation a knowledge of the patriotic traditions and characters of the past and present, along with respect and love to the reigning family. This patriotic species of history should be brought into connection with the life of the people, and their mode of thinking, for which purpose the days of patriotic commemoration are to be put prominently forward, and employed as points of departure. The student should learn the best specimens of popular poetry; both the words and tune; thus making their instruction, both in language and music, serviceable to that of patriotic history. The custom already adopted in some seminaries, of having special celebrations of memorial days for events in our national or ecclesiastical year, which are not already adopted into the church year, is hereby recommended for general imitation. The following days might be so distinguished:* 18th January, 18th February, 18th and 25th June, 3d August, 15th, 18th, 31st October, and 10th November, leaving other days for particular provincial commemorations to be added. The commemoration may fitly consist in the execution of appropriate music; on the church days chaunting; adding explanations of the respective events commemorated.

As the instruction in history is confined to the two upper classes, so the instruction in geography shall be confined to the two lower classes.

Then follows the programme of the geographical course.

5. Knowledge of Nature.—Natural history shall be taught in the first and second years' classes two hours per week; not in a strictly scientific way, or adopting any classification. The principal indigenous plants and animals shall be brought before the pupils and described to them. In botany a foundation for further future study shall be laid. They shall be taught to distinguish the principal native minerals and rocks. A popular description of the human body shall be given. It is scarcely necessary to say that a necessary condition of this instruction is a religious disposition and tendency. The pupils ought to acquire a love for nature and natural occupations. A practical direction, too, may be given to this branch of instruction by constant reference to gardening, agriculture, industry and trade. In the third year the students may advance to natural philosophy, which shall always be treated in an experimental way, without mathematical formulæ; the common instruments, machines, and mechanical powers may be explained to them, with the phenomena of heat, electricity and magnetism.

6. Arithmetic and Geometry.—The latter is limited to acquaintance with the principal geometrical figures, plane and solid, their properties and modes of measuring them, without any scientific method or calculus. Arithmetical operations, with three places of figures, are to be practiced as in the elementary school, as follows: In ciphering, the practical end of the people's school vanishes, on the one hand, all the lessons in the theory of number which were formerly given, and, on the other, avoids with equal care the working of problems by the mechanical methods of multiplication table. Mental arithmetic, not permitted as a separate exercise, as a useless fatigue of brain, is used to correct the mechanism of the slate, and is restricted to the system of enumeration as distinct from that of notation. Setting sums to work in abstract number is to be done as little as possible; in the lower class altogether avoided. The examples should be always in concrete number. This latter rule is deduced from the principle of concentration of teaching, which is further carried through in the requirements, that the four operations shall not be taught as separate processes, each governed by its separate rule, but in their mutual connection; nor fractions be made a distinct branch. The true division which is to separate the lower from the upper class in arithmetic, is the magnitude of the quantities dealt with. Thus a child is carried through all the operations, fractional and unitarian, in the tens before it advances to the hundreds, and so on. Geometry, a favorite subject with the old masters, is not now admitted into the one-class school,

* It may be necessary to state the events for which these days are famous: 18th January, 1701, Prussia become a kingdom; 18th February, 1546, Luther died; 18th June, 1815, Battle of Belle Alliance; 3d August, 1770, Frederick William III. born; 15th October, 1795, King's Birthday; 18th October, 1813, Battle of Leipzig; 31st October, 1517, Reformation; 10th November, 1483, Luther born.

though we find it sometimes taught in the upper classes of a six-class school in connection with designing.

For leave to go into the higher parts of arithmetic, proportion, decimals, extraction of roots, not for application in the school, but for their own improvement, application may be made to the provincial government.

7. WRITING is to be taught with an especial view to acquiring a plain and flowing hand, and, secondly, to learning how to set clear copies of single letters and strokes in proper succession for the school. The copies executed by the pupils are to be at once exercises in caligraphy and an intellectual discipline. The method of teaching to write is to be learnt along with the practice in writing.

8. DRAWING in the Seminary must not go beyond introductory lessons in the linear representation of simple objects.

9. MUSIC is cultivated in the seminary for moral and church objects. The art is never to be regarded as its own end. The field of instruction here is one of deep and earnest moral purpose; in great measure a sacred purpose. The seminary has to form, not only the teacher of singing for the school, but the organist and the precentor for the church.

10. GYMNASTIC. 11. GARDENING.—Instruction in gardening, cultivation of fruit-trees, silk, &c., shall be given, or some part of it, in every seminary; but local opportunities will determine their character.

The above is the substance, very greatly compressed, of a document even more than usually involved in vague and abstract language. It relates only to the three years' course in the seminary, and one of its main objects is to restrict the variety and ambitiousness of the previous system. How far even the limited course here prescribed can be carried out, depends necessarily on how far the young men, at their admission to the seminary, are qualified to commence the course here described. As I have already said, the greater part of them come so raw and uncultivated, that they require the greater part of the first year to make them fit to begin their training. On every side in Prussia are heard complaints of the want of preparation on the part of the *präparanden*, as they are called, before their entry at the seminary. Yet these youths have all had the advantages of the elementary school, generally a six-class school, up to fourteen, and have since that time been professing to prepare themselves specially for entrance at the seminary. As they can not enter the seminary till eighteen, (in Prussia,) and as the seminary professes to make very little addition to the matters taught in the elementary school, but mainly to practice and fix what has been there learnt, it must excite our wonder, what have these youths been doing in the interval between leaving school and applying for admission at the seminary, that they come so ill prepared?

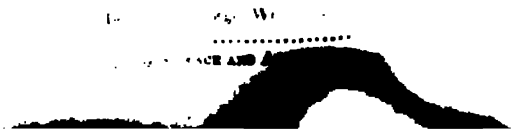
The principle which appears to govern that reform of the North German seminaries, which has been accomplished in the last eight years, or is still in progress, may be best described by its contrast to that which it has supplanted. The aim of the seminaries in the last generation was less to train the future schoolmaster for the technical work of teaching children of from eight to fourteen to read, write and cipher, than to give him a complete mental culture. The old seminary was a university on a small scale, and confined to a particular faculty its science of *pädagogik*. It had some of the excellencies, and many of the defects, of the German university; it had its elevated, universal, super-professional aim, and breadth of culture; it had also its defects of method; its frittering of the matters taught into so many abstract branches, erected into sciences, and theoretically lectured upon, not taught. The old seminary teacher was a professor, who gave his courses of logic, *Pädagogik*, *Didactik*, *Methodik*, anthropology or psychology. The seminarists were students who sat listening to these lofty harangues, and writing out their *Heften* from them. A few among them caught from him a love of knowledge, and an

undefined ambition for intellectual self-development; meanwhile, the great mass of them comprehended little of all they heard, and went away in ignorance of the rudiments, while the technical qualifications for their future vocation were neglected by all. A master so turned out into life was not only not qualified, he was positively unfitted, for his duties. He found himself, with an unsatisfied intellectual craving, condemned to an inferior social position, to a starving salary, without prospect of promotion, and bound to a labor which he despised. Even if he liked teaching, his wish was to teach as he had been taught, and he began to lecture his children on natural science, on astronomy, on history or theology, or on the beauties of Schiller, according to his taste. His dissatisfaction with his own lot in life begot a political discontent. Though he dared not utter this, he felt it keenly. The agitations of 1848–9 were a "schoolmasters' revolution." It is not necessary to inquire here if this be true or not; it is sufficient that such a belief is generally entertained, at least among the governments, and the classes connected with them. The reaction against the old system was rapid in proportion to the imminence of the danger. This reaction was partly one of purely educational theory, partly one of political alarm. A sounder educational opinion proscribed at once the aim and the method hitherto pursued. The proper aim of the seminary was perceived to be, not to educate its pupils as men, but to train them as schoolmasters. The forming and development of the understanding were here entirely out of place. The whole scientific furniture of the old seminary was turned out of doors. *Pädagogik*, name and thing, were banished, and at most, the practical management of a school (*Schulkunde*) was retained as a subject of lessons for one hour per week. Physics, the favorite branch of the old teachers, were to cease as science, and their place taken by *Heimathskunde*, or observation of the phenomena of our own neighborhood. The vague and aimless "history," upon which so much time had been hitherto wasted, was supplanted by the more manageable "history of our fatherland," *i. e.*, of Prussia in Prussian seminaries, of Saxony in the Saxon, &c. The "so-called classical literature" of Germany was absolutely prohibited, even for private reading, and in its place a select library, chiefly compilations of modern writers, was ordered for the seminary. Finally, learning by rote was to take the place of the formal exercise of the understanding; and instead of knowledge, the object proposed to the student was the acquisition of the technical facilities which the children were to learn from him.

These were the educational principles of the reform; of the political principles involved it is not necessary that I should speak. It is as much in the interest of the schoolmasters themselves as in that of the existing social order, that they should have learnt to know their own place in it. The spirit of independence, self-reliance and intellectual ambition which the old seminary fostered, made them not only dangerous to church and state, but unhappy in their confined sphere of life. The young teachers whom the seminaries are now turning out, as far as I have had opportunities of observing them, are of a very different temper. The official reports from all the departments concur in stating, in the words of that of Merseberg, (March, 1858,) that "the former eagerness for emancipation on the part of the teachers had disappeared." The older teachers, if they retain the feeling, find it necessary to conceal it. A spirit of subordination, of contentment with their lot, and acquiescence in church authority, is now prevalent. His energy has perhaps gone with it, but at any rate his restlessness has disappeared.

This result has not been attained exclusively by repressive measures. Within the last few years great efforts have been made to improve the salaries of the teachers.

W. D. Henkle



THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 19.]

No. XLIV.—SEPTEMBER, 1866.

CONTENTS.

PAG.

PORTRAIT OF SAMUEL GALLOWAY, First President of Ohio State Teachers' Association,.... 401

I. NEW ENGLAND ACADEMIES,.... 403

Their Place in a System of Public Instruction,.... 403

II. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY,.... 430

Warren Burton,.... 430

Benjamin F. Blewett—*Portrait*,.... 431

William D. Henkle—*Portrait*,.... 432

III. THE SCHOOL AND THE TEACHER IN ENGLISH LITERATURE,.... 433

ROBERT SOUTHEY,.... 433

Birth, Parentage, Homestead, and Education of the *Doctor*,.... 433

Richard Guy, the Schoolmaster of Ingleton,.... 438

A Kind Schoolmaster and a Happy Boy,.... 440

IV. DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOLS,.... 449

THE BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,.... 449

Development of Course of Study,.... 450

Dedicatory Address of Hon. William G. Bates,.... 453

Plans of School-house,.... 465

V. ENGLISH PEDAGOGY,.... 472

Contents and Index of *First Series*,.... 472

VI. SIR THOMAS ELYOT,.... 483

Memoir and Publications,.... 483

THE GOVERNOUR—London, 1564,.... 485

Abstract and Extracts,.... 485

VII. THE BENEFACTORS AND FOUNDERS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,.... 497

WILLIAM OF WYKEHAM,.... 497

VIII. THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND,.... 501

ST. MARY'S COLLEGE AT WINCHESTER,.... 501

IX. EDUCATIONAL LESSONS FOR SOUTH AMERICA,.... 533

Schools the Basis of the Prosperity of the United States, by D. F. Sarmiento,.... 533

X. COLLEGE EDUCATION,.... 539

Report on the Reorganization of St. John's College,.... 539

XI. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE,.... 555

Course of Study, by Prof. Buckham, Vermont University,.... 555

Philological Study, by Prof. March, Lafayette College, Penn.,.... 559

Suggestions of Prof. S. Porter, Deaf Mute College, Washington, D. C.,.... 568

XII. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE,.... 569

XIII. NATIONAL AID TO STATE SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE AND ART,.... 591

I. NEW ENGLAND ACADEMIES AND CLASSICAL SCHOOLS.

BY REV. CHARLES HAMMOND, A. M.,

Principal of Academy, Monson, Mass.

RECENT events have directed attention to that class of schools known as Academies and suggested the importance of studying their history as related to classical and what is called higher English education. The erection and dedication of a splendid edifice for the use of Phillips Academy at Andover reminds us of the long continued usefulness of that institution as a classical school. Within a few years the biography of the founder of that institution, Judge Phillips, has been written by the Rev. John L. Taylor, a work of the greatest value in the help it gives to those who wish to understand the motives which led to the establishment of the Academies at Andover and Exeter.

The history of Leicester Academy by Ex-Governor Washburn, now Professor of Law in Harvard College, is a most valuable contribution to the history of the classical schools of New England. The address of Prof. Cleveland at the Centennial Celebration of Dummer Academy, recently published, suggests the antiquity of some of the oldest and best of New England Academies, while it is a most worthy tribute to the patrons and teachers of sound learning in former days.

The Academies of this country belong to that grade of schools often called in Europe by the general term, middle schools. On the Continent they are often called gymnasia, or classical drill schools, where boys are prepared for the Universities. In England they are called "the Great Public Schools," as Harrow, Rugby, Eton, and Westminster. Those of less note are called simply grammar schools, which is their most ancient appellation. In Scotland they are called grammar schools and sometimes high schools, of which the High School at Edinburgh is one of the best, having been founded as early at least as 1519; since we have from that year continuous references to the High School in the records of the town council.* Stevens, in his History of the Edinburgh

---

* 1519, April 11. The quhilk day, provost baillies and counsall statutis and ordanis, for reason-

High School, says that "Scotland had schools in her principal towns so early as the twelfth century."

The "grammar schools" first established in the Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven colonies, were evidently modeled, as near as possible, after the grammar or public schools of England, with which the founders of the colonies were perfectly familiar, inasmuch as they had been educated in them as well as in the English Universities, of which many of them were distinguished graduates.

It is not necessary to dwell very particularly on the "Public or Foundation Schools of England," which served as the model of the first classical schools of this country, since they have already been the subject of articles * in this Journal.

In their attempts to transplant the English system of grammar schools as a part of their earliest institutions, our fathers did not succeed in their efforts to give them the *endowments*, which had been the ground of their inherent vitality in the fatherland, and caused them to be, for ages before America was discovered, what they have been truly called, "the most English institutions of England."

The Puritans were too poor to endow their institutions, even their first college, with other than a most meager foundation. They have left on record their ideals of what they attempted in their great enterprise of founding a new commonwealth, and among them all none is of greater interest than what they themselves called their first *essays* to establish colleges and classical schools.

Unable at first to plant a college, they did the next best thing possible. "A general court held at Boston † advanced a *small sum*, (and it was a day of *small* things,) namely, four hundred pounds, by way of essay towards the building of something to begin a college." In this "something," before it became a college, the notorious Nathaniel Eaton was master, whom Mather berates as "a blade who marvelously deceived the expectations of good men concerning him." Yet "he was a rare scholar himself and made many more such; but their education truly was in the school of Tyrannus."

There is no doubt that the "grammar schools" at Boston, Dorchester, Cambridge, New Haven, Salem, Hartford, and a few other places, were in the first generation good schools. Mather has given us their course of study for boys in training for "ye universitie." "When scholars had so far profited at the grammar schools

abel causis, that na maner of nychtbouris nor indwellers within this burt, put their bairnis till ony particulare scule within this toun, but to the principale gramer scule. 1531, March 19. Maister Adam Melvil of the hie scule oblist him to mak the bairnys perfyte gramariaris within thrie zeires. (See Stevens' History of High School of Edinburgh.)

* See Vol. VIII., p. 257; XV., p. 81-117. † Mather's Magnalia, Book, IV., Section 4.

that they could read any classical author into English and readily make and speak true Latin, and write it in verse as well as in prose, and perfectly decline the paradigms of nouns and verbs in the Greek tongue, they were judged capable of admission to Harvard College."* This standard of "admission" speaks well for the early scholarship of the college as well as of its preparatory schools. It may be doubted whether the standard of classical attainments, on the whole, was not higher then at Harvard than it has been in any American college since.

It is certain that good scholars of that day could both make and speak "true Latin," the language which learned men of the time used with the ease and fluency of their own vernacular. The first civilians and ministers of New England, the Winthrops and Winslow, Robinson, Cotton, Ward, Rogers, and Chauncey, were excellent scholars and some of them authors of distinguished repute. Norton, Shephard, Eliot, and Symmes, were graduates of Cambridge, and Davenport of Oxford; and most of them were the contemporaries of John Milton, the great classic scholar of his own century and the great poet of all the centuries. At no period before or since, in the history of English literature, were the ancient classics more eagerly or extensively studied than in the days of the Puritan emigration to America. The great questions of controversy in ecclesiastical and civil affairs were discussed by the master-minds of the time in the Latin tongue, as for instance the conflict of Milton with Salmasius,

> In liberty's defense, a noble task,
> Of which all Europe rang from side to side.

Those great men wrote in Latin, not for a few scholars only but that all the thinking, well educated men of the world might read and understand.

In the great strifes of the first and second English revolution, no class of men in Christendom were more interested than were the early colonists of New England. When we read, then, of their anxious fears, lest the learning, which the first generation of scholars brought with them to these shores, should be buried with them in their own graves, we may better understand what that learning was they prized so much, when we know the uses to which it was applied in their own times, and why they deemed it so essential that that same learning should live after them in all ages of the future.

The dread of the early Puritans as to the decline of learning in the colonies came near to actual realization, notwithstanding their

* Mather's Magnalia, Vol. 2d, Book IV. 4.

earnest attempts to prevent this calamity. For nearly three generations one college only could be sustained, and this was chiefly through the legacy of the Rev. John Harvard, who died soon after his arrival from England, where he had not long before graduated at Emanuel College in Cambridge. When Yale was founded in 1700 its chief benefactor was Gov. Yale, who was a resident of London and acquired his fortune in India during his administration as Governor of the East India Company. So, too, when Dartmouth was founded near the era of the Revolution its chief patron was an English nobleman. If, then, the colleges of the colonial period of our history were able to live only by benefactions which came chiefly from a foreign land, how could it be expected that the grammar schools could retain the rank they might have had under Master Cheever and other teachers of the first generation?

Perhaps no greater efforts were made to sustain a good "grammar school" or "free" school, in which "Latin, Greek, and Hebrew" were taught so as to fit young men for "ye universitie," than in the colony of New Haven, which, in point of wealth, was equal at least to any other in New England. Rev. John Davenport, minister of New Haven, "the prince of preachers and fit to be a preacher to princes," was unremitting in his labors to establish "a free" school, for the support of which "the town paid twenty pounds a year to Mr. Ezekiel Cheever for two or three years at first, but in August, 1644, it was enlarged to thirty pounds a year and so continueth." Master Cheever was one of the first emigrants to New Haven, where he began his long service as a grammar school teacher in 1638, in which he continued for nearly seventy years, ending his career as the master of the Latin School in Boston, where he died in 1708. He used his own "Latin Accidence" for successive generations, and long after his death it was the only "text-book" for Latin beginners in New England.*

When Master Cheever left New Haven in 1649 to go to Ipswich, the grammar school declined and although every effort was made to retrieve its fortunes, it never regained its earliest renown under its first and most famous teacher.

Not long afterwards Mr. Davenport tried "to settle at New Haven a small colledg such as the day of small things will permitt," but for that measure the fullness of time had not yet come. Having urged in vain the leading towns of the colony to maintain each a grammar school of their own, he then planned "a colony school" for the entire jurisdiction. But this, after two years, was "laid down" and never taken up again.

* Cheever and the Early Free Grammar Schools of New England, I, 297; XVI, 102.

It was at this time of greatest discouragement that the donations of Governor Hopkins were made for the endowment of classical schools in Hartford, New Haven, Hadley, and Cambridge. No benefaction for a good cause was ever more opportunely given. The "true intent" of his legacy was well expressed in the words of his will "to give encouragement in those foreign plantations for the breeding up of hopeful youths, both at the grammar school and college, for the public service of the country in future times." It was well that the avails of the Hopkins' donations accrued chiefly to the benefit of the grammar schools, which received his endowments. It thus became possible for a classic school, formed after the English grammar school, to be planted on American soil and to take deep root, nourished, as the English schools were, with ample endowments, and to bear fruit perennially to the latest generations. Whatever fate might befall the grammar schools of other towns planted by the Puritans, it was a consolation to Davenport and his fellow-trustees of the Hopkins' endowments, that one school, at least, in each of the leading colonies, could be maintained, in which "the three languages, Lattine, Greeke, and Hebrew, might be taught soe far as was necessary to prepare youth for colledge." Though the Hopkins' donations made it possible to establish grammar schools at a few important localities, yet classic culture did not readily thrive, and those precious funds were in danger of perversion even in New Haven, under the trusteeship of Davenport, who was the only man that could have saved them. For the people were so poor even in that colony, which was more wealthy than the others, and the public mind was so distracted by the political questions resulting in the union of New Haven Colony with Connecticut, that but little attention was given to the interests of education for the time. Hence, public sentiment at first tolerated the use of the funds for an English school. Indeed, teachers of the classics were so scarce that no fit master could be found except for an English school and hardly for that. "The fittest that could be found was George Pardee, who was willing to do what he was able, but told the town frankly that he had lost much of what learning he formerly attained." He however "undertook to teach Englishe and to carry on the scholars in Lattine as far as he could; also to learn them to write." It was then that Mr. Davenport performed "one of the last and most useful public services" to the town of New Haven, by protesting, as he was required to do according to the "will of the dead," against the longer misapplication of the avails of the Hopkins' fund contrary to the intent of the

donor, and declared it to be his purpose to transfer the fund to some other town if the use of it was not made for a proper grammar school. This intimidation had the desired effect; and as soon as possible the school was established according to the true intent of its founder. "The advantage of this single effort in favor of liberal education," says Prof. Kingsley,* "can not be easily estimated." One of its results was the great number of young men sent to Harvard College from the single town of New Haven, being one in thirty of all the graduates of that college prior to 1700, and that, too, from a town not having more than five hundred inhabitants at any time during that period.

The endowments at Hartford and Hadley were far less fortunate. The people of those towns used those funds for a long period to maintain schools of no higher grade than a common English school. "The Hopkins School at Hartford seems to have been the only public school of any sort for the first century of its existence."† In 1797 the town of Hartford sought a charter of incorporation and surrendered its control of the Hopkins' fund to a self-perpetuative board of trustees, under whose management the funds were greatly increased and a classical school of a high order was maintained on the ancient foundation according to the will of the donor. So, too, the Hadley Grammar School became an Academy after the town had controlled and perverted the use of the Hopkins' fund from 1669 to 1816. Under the new organization a contest soon arose between the town and the Academy, which at last was decided by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in 1833, when Judge Shaw held that the devise of Gov. Hopkins was made, not for founding a town school for the exclusive benefit of the inhabitants of Hadley only, but for all the persons in that (then) newly settled part of the country who desired to avail themselves of a grammar school adapted to instruct and qualify pupils for the University."‡

If one of our distinguished divines has said that "barbarism is the first danger" of modern civilization in America, it was surely a fearful peril when Hopkins and Davenport tried to withstand it. It was their glory that they laid the foundations of the State aright. They could not be expected to do much more than this, which was their destined work. The day of small things, as they called their own cherished plans and institutions, was really a day of great

* See Kingsley's Historical Discourse, page 92.

† See Rev. L. W. Bacon's Address at the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Hopkins Grammar School at New Haven, page 65. [Mr. Bacon is mistaken as to his surmise of there having been no other school at Hartford. H. B.]

‡ See L. W. Bacon's Address, page 65.

events in their relations to the distant future. They earnestly labored to prevent the decline of learning which continued till after the Revolution. But they could not build up vigorous institutions of liberal culture in the wilderness in a single generation, such as Europe possessed as the fruit of centuries of civilization. They had only one learned profession, that of Divinity, and chiefly for the sake of this, Harvard and Yale were founded.

The profession of the teacher was indeed recognized in the first generation as a distinct calling, and had been so regarded time out of mind in the fatherland. But the early graduates of Harvard and Yale, who could have been the successors of Cheever, found "his occupation gone," and thus they were forced to enter the ministry as their only vocation. Fortunately, the duty of teaching the classics was regarded as one of their proper functions, and as the ministers were the only class in the community who had leisure for study and books, there were found a few in every generation who guarded well this precious trust of education, and furnished in this way most of the candidates for admission to college and thus their own profession was preserved. And yet in this profession the standard of classical attainments was lamentably low even so late as the beginning of the present century.* Most abundant evidence of this fact appears in the history of education as published on the pages of this Journal.

Near the middle of the last century there were indications of the coming of a better day. Here and there were persons found, of broad and comprehensive culture, who were in correspondence and close sympathy with the leading minds of the fatherland, and who fully realized the transcendent value of the long-established seats of good learning there. On the other hand, such men as Doddridge and Watts and Bishop Berkley were deeply interested in the intellectual advancement of the American colonies, as is proved by their benefactions to Harvard and Yale.

In 1746, Samuel Moody graduated at Harvard College and commenced his career as a classical teacher in the York Grammar School in the province of Maine. Since the days of Cheever, who had then been dead nearly forty years, no teacher had appeared of equal celebrity. The school he taught was the only public school in town, yet he made it famous as the resort of scholars who afterwards became distinguished. One of the number was Joseph Wil

* See a letter of the late Judge Story, in the memoirs of Dr. Channing, relating to the studies of Harvard College during the times when those eminent men were undergraduates.

lard, afterwards President of Harvard College and the best Greek scholar of his day.*

In 1763, the Dummer School at Byfield in Newbury, the oldest of the New England Academies, was founded, and Samuel Moody was its first master. This event marks a new era in the history of classical education in this country. For the first twenty years of its history it was called the "Dummer School," and its teacher was called "Master," a title which, as the accomplished historian of Dummer Academy has well observed, is still thought good enough for the President of a college in Oxford and Cambridge."† Dummer School, under the administration of Master Moody, was the best type of an English grammar school that had existed on American soil since the days of Ezekiel Cheever. It was placed by the founder under the control of the town or parish committee, who were to manage its funds and had the power of appointing but not of removing the teacher, whose tenure of office was for life unless the overseers of Harvard College should judge the incumbent "immoral or incompetent."

For nineteen years Master Moody managed the school according to his discretion, the trustees under the will "doing nothing and having nothing to do." During that period he prepared for college some of the most eminent men of their times, among whom were President Webber, Professors Pierson and Tappan of Harvard, and Prof. John Smith of Dartmouth; also Chief-Justices Parsons and Sewell, Rufus King, William Prescott, Nathaniel Gorham, and Samuel Phillips, the founder of the Academy at Andover. The fact that these and other distinguished men of the last century most gratefully honored the Byfield preceptor so long as they lived, proved the personal excellence and power of their instructor.

There is no doubt that the long and successful career of Master Moody at Byfield led to the establishment, near the close of the Revolution, of the Phillips Academies at Andover and Exeter and of Leicester. Each of these schools originated as foundation schools established by eminent civilians, but differing from the Hopkins and the Dummer Schools in granting no special advantage to the towns in which they were located. This feature was one which distinguished the Academy from the ancient grammar school, which generally seems to have been local so far as to favor specially the town or precinct where it was established, though the children of neigboring towns were admitted generally at a higher rate of tui-

* See Cleveland's Centennial Address, page 20 † See Cleveland's Address, page 22.

tion. This was the case at Dummer and at the Hopkins Schools, though, as it appears from the decision of Chief-Justice Shaw in the case of Hadley vs. Hopkins Academy already referred to, that the benefactions of Governor Hopkins were not to be restricted to a single locality. He made "New England his heir."

The Phillips foundations were called "free," and in that respect they were like those of the first grammar schools in New England and those of the fatherland. It has been most unwarrantably assumed that a *free* school was one in which the tuition was gratuitous; but in this sense not even the common English rudimental schools of the first generation were free, for though supported in part by public appropriations, yet the parents of the children provided also a part of the tuition in nearly all the schools of every grade.

Not many years ago the claim was set up, that the tuition at Andover Phillips Academy should be gratuitous, on the ground that the school was declared to be "free" in the constitution of the founder. But it was proved that such could not be the meaning of the term "free," since as early as the first year of the history of the school it appeared that tuition was paid by the pupils in accordance with a rule established by the consent of the founder himself.

But if the Academies of New England were not free in the sense of affording gratuitous privileges, as the meaning of the term now is, when applied in such phrases, as "free churches," "free seats," "free libraries," and "free schools," they were most truly free in the sense of being open to all alike, without respect of race, rank, or sect, or residence, and were therefore as broad in their domain of influence and usefulness as the world itself. They were free to all comers from places near and distant, even from foreign lands. They were free in their allowance of equal privileges to all on the same conditions, while the schools and universities of England were nearly all exclusive, a condition of admission being that the candidate must belong to some particular church, or society, or guild. The earliest educational systems of the Puritans were free from all such conditions and limitations.

But they did not consider that school privileges should be conferred on the young as an entire gratuity, and hence, in the earliest school laws, while it was made the duty of towns under penalties to establish common schools, it was left discretionary with the towns as to the special method of supporting the schools, a part of the expense of tuition always being defrayed by the pupil. The endowments of Colleges and Academies were designed to cheapen the tuition so as to render it possible for all to enter by the payment of

moderate tuition fees, inasmuch as a school of a high grade, when wholly supported by tuition, must be beyond the reach of all classes except those of abundant wealth. Hence it is, that all colleges and schools of a high grade in this and other lands are eleemosynary institutions, the rich and the poor meeting together on the same charitable foundations. The prejudice that prevails in some quarters, on the ground, that endowed schools are designed for the rich, and that institutions, supported by public taxation, are for the special benefit of the poor, is wholly groundless, since the history of the endowed schools of every grade in England and in the United States, shows that the policy of providing for the poor, or those of inadequate means of liberal education, was the end or design of this class of schools; while on the other hand, if the schools depended alone on the public for support, the disbursements would be so meager, that the quality of education in all the higher departments of learning would be so low, as to be worthless to the possessor and useless to the State.

But we are inclined to the opinion, that the original designation of the term *free*, as applied to the ancient grammar schools of England and this country, did not have respect either to the cost or to any conditional restriction of the privileges of learning to any class or sect, but to the nature and tendencies of learning in its effects on the mind of the scholar and on the state of society. The classical schools in ancient times were called *free*, for the same reason that the education obtained in them has always been called *liberal*, from the old Latin designation, *libera schola*, the word having reference to the results not to the methods of education as tending to liberalize and refining the human mind, and especially as giving enlargement of views and freedom from the dominion of unreal prejudices and the phantoms of superstition.

It is most certain, that this sense of the word free, accorded perfectly with the ultimate aims of the patrons of liberal learning, who, at the close of the American Revolution, were moved to establish that class of middle schools called Academies, under a constitution or system of government, on the same plan as that of colleges and universities, and yet more directly popular in their influence, serving the same uses for the entire population which were furnished by the grammar schools to a few favored localities.

It is worthy of special consideration that the motives of the founders of Phillips Academy at Andover and Exeter, and at Leicester, had respect to the advantage not of any one location, but of the entire public. Indeed the charters of the first Academies

nearly all contained express provisions to prevent localization, by requiring a majority of the trustees to be non-residents of the place where such institutions were located; while in the charter of Phillips Academy at Andover the liberty of removal to any other town in the State was granted whenever, in the judgment of the trustees, the public good might require a change of location. Colonel Crafts of Sturbridge, the founder of Leicester Academy, at one time contemplated the location of the school in his own town; but finally chose Leicester as the seat of the new seminary in view of considerations wholly irrespective of the special advantages which one town rather than another might receive.

It is worthy of notice also, in this connection, that those Academies in New England, which had their origin in the intent to subserve the good of the public at large have always had a continued and unfailing patronage, while those, which were established to serve the special wants of a particular locality, have failed of constant prosperity by reason of their narrow and restrictive policy.

It is a question of some interest, as related to the special design of Academies, why they were called by that somewhat ambitious appellation. It is certain, that its use as applied to a class of strictly middle schools is peculiar to the United States. In Europe the word Academy, has long been applied to associations of learned men, who are proficients not novices in the arts and sciences; and thus used the term approximates to its classic meaning, as the name of a place of resort for philosophers, not tyros in knowledge, in which the gravest themes in morals and politics were the subjects of discussion.

In England, the word Academy has long been applied to schools under the patronage of the Dissenters. Excluded from the universities and the ancient grammar schools, which were all under the control of the established church, the Dissenters, as soon as they were allowed to do so by the famous "Act of Toleration," built meeting-houses and schools for their exclusive use, especially for the training of ministers. These schools were both classical and professional, and in this respect they were quite similar to the colleges of New England, Harvard and Yale, the great design of which was to train up ministers, the only profession deemed of much consequence during the first three or four generations of the colonial period.

How early the word Academy was used by the English Dissenters we can not now determine, but we find the earliest suggestion of this term as an appellation for a classical school "for boys between

the ages of twelve and one-and-twenty," in John Milton's famous "Tractate on Education," addressed to Samuel Hartlib.*

In this plan of an "Academy" Milton says it should be "big enough to lodge one hundred and fifty persons all under the government of one head-master, who shall be thought of desert sufficient and ability either to do all or wisely to direct and oversee it done. This place should be at once both school and university, not needing a remove to any other house of scholarship except it be to some peculiar college of law or physic where they mean to be practitioners."

In the range of studies for Milton's plan of a school the classics were not ignored, though he was in favor of what is sometimes called practical learning. He would have the sciences taught as the *subject matter* of instruction, but by means of classic authors as far as possible. Indeed, his course of study in the classics is more extensive than has ever prevailed in any American college, and this course he recommended for boys between twelve and one-and-twenty. So, too, his notions about exercise by means of gymnastics and military drills were coincident with what are now deemed novelties, though as old as Greek culture in its best days.

No doubt the views of Milton had an influence with the English Nonconformists when they were allowed to have schools of their own, which, in their several grades, served for them the place of the grammar schools and universities from which, down to our day, they have been utterly excluded.

And some of the Puritan seminaries attained a wide celebrity a century before schools under the same appellation were known in America. There was a noted Academy at Kibworth in Leicestershire, at which Doddridge entered in 1718, and under the tuition of Mr. John Jennings received his classical and theological education.

Another celebrated Academy was at Northampton, over which Doddridge himself long presided. There was an Academy at London under the tutorship of Mr. Thomas Rowe, where Dr. Isaac Watts was educated, whose influence as a theologian with the ministers in New England in the last century was hardly less than it was in England.

We may be sure then that the schools of the English Independents would be regarded with favor in this country, being identical in aim with the leading seminaries of this country, for the colleges, Harvard and Yale, until the beginning of the present century, made it their great aim to provide the churches with what was called a

* Milton's *Tracate* in Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. II, 178.

learned ministry, though the standard of classical learning in these, then the highest American seminaries, was low enough to exempt them altogether from the imputation of having followed the example of the English Universities in their excessive devotion to classical learning. The history of what little learning has existed in America will show clearly that so long as Puritanism was predominant in the schools of New England, the views which prevailed in England or in Continental Europe as to the methods of education were not blindly followed.

When the system of middle schools was originated by Judge Phillips, near the close of the American Revolution, though he adopted the appellation belonging to the schools of the English Dissenters, he did not imitate them in their plan of study, nor was their policy restricted to a particular system of administration. Milton's plan of a "school and college" blended together was discarded.

The Academy was made strictly subordinate to the college and preparatory thereto in its range of studies, while one of its great objects was to supplement and extend the means of popular instruction. The first founders of Academies were men of the most enlarged and liberal policy, and regarded all grades of schools, in their mutual relations and interdependencies, as alike needful for the public good. The politician had not then been born who had thought of instituting comparisons as to the relative importance of institutions which were alike essential to the glory of the commonwealth.

The impulse of a few minds, like Judge Phillips and Colonel Crafts to establish a new order of middle schools for the benefit of the whole people, was soon responded to by the public sentiment of Massachusetts. In 1789 the most important revision of the school laws was made, with a view to equalize and extend the benefits of common school instruction.

The school-district system then established, had for its object the welfare of every precinct and hamlet in the land. This measure, though energetically denounced by some modern educational functionaries, was approved universally at the time of its adoption. With the new impulse given to the elementary schools, the Academies were found to coöperate. For this reason, doubtless, the State of Massachusetts, in 1797, included the Academies already incorporated into her system of public instruction and provided for their support by liberal endowments. The State patronage was given in grants of land in the province of Maine.

It does not appear that the founders of Phillips Academy or of Leicester expected at first any aid from the State. In asking for charters, they sought only the rights and privileges of legal existence. But so marked was the beneficial influence of these new seminaries, that seven of the fifteen, which had been incorporated prior to 1797, had received donations of Maine land. Of these seven Leicester, Marblehead, and Taunton were in Massachusetts, and Fryeburg, Machias, Hallowell, and Berwick were in the Province.

In 1797 other Academies in Massachusetts petitioned for endowments, and in consequence the Legislature appointed a joint special committee to consider not only the petitions then presented, but to devise a plan of public policy respecting future appropriations in behalf of incorporated Academies.

The joint committee thus appointed, consisted of men of high standing and ability in the State among whom was Nathan Dane of Beverly, who was the reputed author of the report made to the Legislature. This report was deemed of such importance that it was ordered to be printed with the laws of the session of that year. Nathan Dane had become distinguished in Congress as the author of the famous ordinance of 1787 by which slavery was prohibited forever from the North-west Territory. Mr. Webster, in his speech on Foote's resolution, honored Mr. Dane as one of the noblest of Massachusetts statesmen.

Living at Beverly, in the vicinity of Dummer Academy, and knowing, as he must, the influence of that school on all the local schools of Essex county, Mr. Dane could appreciate fully the benefits of Academies every where, and hence he was desirous to extend such benefits to the entire population of Massachusetts and its then dependent province.

In the same way, Leicester had attracted general attention as a radiant light set upon a hill which could not be hid. Indeed, there was not a town in the central and southern sections of Worcester county, which did not derive important advantages from that institution, especially in the strong and abiding influence of such teachers as Ebenezer Adams on the character of great numbers who themselves became teachers in the common schools.

The report of Mr. Dane, recommended a general system of State endowments under certain provisions and restrictions, or conditions, the most important of which were "that no Academy should be encouraged by the Government unless it have a neighborhood to support it of at least thirty to forty thousand inhabitants not already accommodated in any other manner by other Academies, or by any

college or school answering the purpose of an Academy." Another condition of aid was, "that every portion of the commonwealth ought to be equally entitled to grants of State lands in aid of private donations;" and thirdly, "that no grant of State lands should be made except in aid of permanent funds given by towns, or by individuals. Hence, previous to receiving aid from the State, evidence was required to show that adequate funds were already secured to erect and repair buildings, to provide apparatus, and to pay a part of the salary of the preceptors."

In adopting this report as a part of the educational policy of the State not only Massachusetts immediately bestowed her endowments on the Academies already existing, but in accordance with the suggestions of the report of Mr. Dane provision was made for those parts of the State where as yet no Academy was located, in order to induce the people to establish such institutions and thus receive the patronage of the State if they complied with the conditions.

In a report made to the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1859, the Hon. Chas. W. Upham, chairman of the joint committee of education, said, concerning the report of Mr. Dane, that the following principles were established in 1797 as determining the relations of Academies to the commonwealth, viz.:—"They were to be regarded in many respects and to a considerable extent as public schools, as a part of an organized system of public and universal education, as opening the way for all the people to a higher order of instruction than the common schools can supply; that they were to be distributed as nearly as might be so as to accommodate the different districts or localities of the State according to the measure of the population."

In the same report Mr. Upham also says "that no Academy endowed by a town or a State is a private school. Academies are all to a certain extent public schools established as such upon a legalized basis of public policy."

This fact is important as going to refute the argument against Academies, that as being chartered institutions they are legally private schools and can not claim the sympathy which public schools receive. If Academies and Colleges are private in a strictly legal sense because under the charge of corporators, yet are they public in the sense that they are not chartered for any personal or local ends, but only and altogether for the public service.

As well might a prejudice exist against railroads as less worthy of popular regard than common roads, seeing that the former are

controlled by chartered corporations and are in a legal sense private, while common roads are public because supported by a municipal corporation which is public in a legal sense. But corporations existing solely for public uses, as boards of trust both for Colleges and Academies, are as much entitled to the popular sympathy as those directly supported by a public tax; and those boards having charge of trust funds which are eleemosynary in their character, as all educational endowments are, really deserve greater public sympathy than appropriations made directly from the public treasury.

A seminary of learning, whether of the highest grade as a college, or of the middle class which has a universal domain of patronage, must be under the supervision of overseers who represent not any local constituency but the public at large.

The plan of a large constituency of thirty or forty thousand inhabitants, as the condition of State patronage, shows that in the original design of Academies greater responsibilities were intrusted to its guardians than any local corporation could properly assume. And for that reason the boards of trust for the best Academies have been constituted on the same basis as that of colleges, consisting of two classes of men, one composed of persons of business capacity and knowledge of public affairs and finance, and the other of men of liberal culture who understand the value of sound learning, the utility of all grades of schools and their mutual relations, and the best methods and systems of intellectual training. As members of these boards of trust teachers of the oldest and best Academies have also favored the cause of sound learning with special service. As in all colleges without exception the offices of trustee and president or head-master are not found to be incompatible, so at Andover, Exeter, Leicester, Wilbraham, and Williston the preceptor has always been ex-officio a trustee.*

The plan of a large constituency, as recommended by Mr. Dane and approved as a part of the educational policy of the State of Massachusetts, is especially worthy of consideration as implying the high rank which the endowed Academies were designed to occupy. The special design of the State, in giving what at the time must be deemed a very liberal endowment to the first incorporated Academies, was to extend to all the country towns privileges of education equal to those which the largest cities of the land at that time afforded.

* The historian of Dummer Academy, Prof. N. Cleveland, has stated the advantages of the connection of the preceptor with the board of trust with great clearness and force. See the Dummer Centennial Discourse, page 86.

The fathers of New England had solemnly imposed the duty of maintaining grammar schools of a high order in all important towns and cities, but this obligation was not met. With few exceptions, and those mostly the endowed schools, we have seen the reluctance of the people of Massachusetts to maintain a school suitable to fit boys for "ye universite." Indeed, it is not certain that any locality in that State save Boston has constantly complied with this provision of the ancient statutes.

But the plan of endowed Academies aimed to establish in each county of the State such a school as might bring within the reach of one day's travel by the ancient modes of conveyance, to all the youth of the State desirous of attending, advantages fully equal to those of the best schools of Boston. The founding of Academies on a basis at once permanent and respectable, furnished settled employment and sure pay in the teacher's calling. Graduates of college, who had a natural gift for teaching, now had a field of service. To be sure, one teacher was amply sufficient, at first for each Academy; for if a college like Yale, could be conducted by a faculty of president and three tutors, it might be presumed that the principal of an Academy needed no assistant. But this state of things belonged, as geologists say, to the paleontological era of education. And yet some of these first teachers of Academies, who labored single-handed and alone, were men of deserved repute in their calling. No teachers of our time are likely to secure greater respect from their contemporaries than did Master Moody of Dummer, Benjamin Abbott of Exeter, Eliphalet Pierson and John Adams of Andover, Caleb Butler of Groton, Ebenezer Adams of Liecester, and Simeon Colton of Monson. Than these preceptors in their respective Academies no grammar school of any populous city could furnish better candidates for the university, or better train young men and young ladies also for the useful callings and occupations of life.

In former times, and more especially in our days, there must be great inequality of educational advantages in different localities, for there is, and must be always, a great inequality in the means and conditions of the people in different parts of the State. Wealth concentrates in cities, and brings with it every facility of instruction in all grades of local schools. But mental endowments and the capacity for knowledge are distributed in the town and city without partiality, the country having a larger proportion of those who excel in the schools than is found in the city.

No better proof is needed to show the value of the first established Academies, in their relation to popular uses, than the desire

to multiply schools under that name in nearly all the important towns. This desire was prompted chiefly by the higher English education they furnished; making them, in all the towns where they were located, an important auxiliary to the elemental schools. Prompted by local enterprise, and aiming to secure the advantages which vicinity was supposed to give, schools called Academies sprang up in great numbers, having no endowments, without any other than a mere local policy, and with an irregular and intermittent existence; the patronage depending solely on the local popularity of the teacher.

In process of time some of the older incorporated Academies, as Marblehead, Bristol, and Framingham, became local schools, and lost their former character as schools for the public at large.

As the wealth and population of the country increased, a demand was made for a higher grade of strictly local schools in all the larger towns, and for that reason the unendowed Academies generally and very properly assumed the position and functions belonging now to the modern high school, which ought always to be supplementary to the common school system.

Most unfortunately for the progress of popular education some, who have labored to extend the high school system in view of its transcendent utility, have assumed a position of antagonism to Academies, calling in question their policy, regarding their day of service as past, and advocating the substitution of high schools in their place.

We most cordially sympathize with the expansion of the system of public instruction to the utmost limit of practical improvement. We fully recognize the advancement of popular education to that degree that in many respects the local high schools may be equal in rank to the condition and standing of the Academies in former days. But high schools must, if they fulfill their proper design, be adapted to the wants of their localities, and meet the average standard which the people of each locality may have the ability and the will to reach. We care not how many such schools exist, or how high a rank of real excellence they may attain, for their object is to supplement the elemental schools, and their rank as *high* schools is correlate to the lower grades in the public system of instruction to which they in common belong.

Of course it follows that the term high school is a very indefinite term, when regarded in its proper relation to the public system; since the high schools of Boston and Salem and Cambridge must be at the head of a greater number of grades than in the country,

where only two, or at most three, grades can be introduced. And yet the average capacity of pupils in the cities must be met as well as those in the country, and the range of studies must not be so high as to render the school of no use to those for whose sake it is specially designed. It is the grade of schools every where and not the name that confers on them real rank.

Now it is clearly beyond the proper province, as it is beyond the ability of nearly all the high schools conducted as they are or ought to be in these days, to fit boys for "ye universitie" as the ancient grammar schools might do; since the standard of college education and of the preparatory schools is as much higher now than formerly, as is the rank of the best high schools of our times above the elemental schools half a century ago.

Far better is it for the pupils who wish to prepare for college, and far more economical is it for the community, that the Academies should continue to do that work well, than that the high schools should assume to do so great a work for so few in number, while the welfare of the great majority of their pupils is neglected.

In Boston and New York and large cities and towns, where wealth is abundant and the gradation of the public schools is perfect, the highest in the series may be a school preparatory for the university; for such places can well afford the expense, although the proportion of city boys who prepare for college is not one-half as great as it is in the country, and in the country not more than one in a thousand of the boys belonging to the public schools ever go to college.

The Boston Latin School, the oldest grammar school in the land, has always sustained the very first rank as a classical seminary. It has for a constituency one of the largest and most enlightened of American cities. The wealth of that city is equal to nearly one-third of the entire valuation of the State of Massachusetts. The Latin School is the only classical seminary in that city sustained by public taxation. It has the best teachers which the highest salaries can procure, and all the advantages which the best instruction and the best discipline can give.

According to the report of the Committee on the Latin School of Boston (Dr. N. B. Shurtleff, chairman) to the Boston School Committee, September, 1861, which was published in this Journal, Vol. XII., page 559, it appears that the average number prepared for college, for the ten years previous, at the Boston Latin School, was 16·8 per annum; and of these the average number of those received from the public schools was 7·7, while the number re-

ceived from other schools was 9·1, making the whole number 16·8 as the annual average of this celebrated school, or seventy-seven who entered the school from the public schools of the city, and ninety-one from private schools. As to those who entered from private schools, amounting to more than half of the whole, it may be presumed that this great accession from schools not belonging to the public system must be due to the excellence of the Latin School, and the fact that its tuition is free to all residents of the city.

From the same report it appears "that for the forty-six years previous to 1861, comprising the masterships of Gould, Leverett, Dillaway, Dixwell, and Gardner for ten years, the average number fitted for college was 12·56 per annum."

The report then asks, "Do not these figures show how eminently useful the Latin School has been in its highest vocation—the production of classical scholars? During the last forty-six years nearly six hundred young men from this school have been admitted to honorable standing in the several universities and colleges in New England.

Such is the claim of Dr. Shurtleff, in behalf of the Latin School of Boston, upon the sympathy and support of a city the largest, the most populous, and the wealthiest in New England. She may justly be proud of this, the oldest grammar school of the land, as the richest gem in her crown of honor as the Athens of America, the home of noble scholars and princely merchants. Let her sustain this school, for she can well afford it, as a part of her system of public instruction so often a matter of boast as the best in the United States, although from that system only seven and seven-tenths per annum of the graduating class of college candidates are received from the far-famed public schools of Boston. And yet this result, though put forth to the world by the Boston School Committee as a matter of boasting, will be received with surprise as very small for a city whose population in 1861 was nearly 178,000, whose valuation for 1860 was $312,000,000, in whose public schools there were 28,000 pupils in 1861, of which only one pupil in 3,636 was fitted for "ye universitie" in one year, in conformity with the ancient statutes.

Compare now, with this record, the results of classical training in the number of candidates for college annually sent forth from Phillips Academy at Andover.

We have only the statistics for the last twenty-eight years, the period of Dr. S. H. Taylor's preceptorship. We make no estimate of Dr. Pierson's administration, or of his successors, Mark Newman,

John Adams, Osgood Johnson, and others, who were at the head of the school for the sixty years previous to Dr. Taylor's accession. We refer not to the results of the English school always sustained at Phillips Academy, of which Wm. H. Wells and J. S. Eaton have been masters, nor to the Normal Seminary connected with Phillips Academy for many years, the first established in America. We refer only to the department of the classics from which, in the last ten years, 46·9 per annum have been fitted for college. In the previous eighteen years the average number fitted was 25⅔, and for the entire period of twenty-eight years the average has been 33¼ per annum. This number does not include two hundred who advanced as far in their course of study as through the first or second term (three in a year) of the last year's course of study, more than half of whom were pretty nearly fitted for college and others within two terms of study."

Thus more than one thousand young men have been sent from Andover to the different colleges, in a little more than a quarter of a century, by one eminent instructor. This one fact is enough to show the vitality of this institution as a power in the land. But the endowment on which all the departments of Phillips Academy rest as their basis does not exceed $75,000, while the funds at Exeter do not vary much from $100,000.

But in these days all the colleges and nearly all Academies are no less schools of science than of the classics. All the best colleges have scientific departments, and the Academies having the greatest patronage are furnished with instruction and apparatus for the preparation of young men for the higher scientific institutions. So extensive has the routine of scientific studies become, that they can not be pursued with profit unless in well endowed institutions where a course of study is established and adhered to. Hence, in Williston Seminary the amplest provision is made for this branch of studies as well as the classical department. As these branches can not be well taught without special teachers and expensive cabinets and apparatus of every kind, the best Academies have been furnished with facilities of teaching in these respects as the high schools with few exceptions have not been.

But the public schools have endeavored, not only to provide classical but scientific instruction also, in obedience to a popular demand for a class of studies deemed specially practical; and the consequence has been that in many places the public schools have been overburdened with an excess of branches of study, while the branches essential as the foundation of real mental culture have

been discarded. This course has diminished the real value of the public schools, which have thus been made subservient to the wants of a few, while the essential interests of the many are disregarded.

The attempt has been made to accomplish too *high* things in what are called high schools. Not only is it proposed to fit boys for "ye universitie" without regard to the question whether they wish to be fitted or not, but to teach the outlines of nearly all the branches for each one of which a professorship is deemed a necessity in a decent college. But this is an impossibility, even in the best high schools of our largest cities and towns, without ignoring the grand idea of what ought to be, if it is not, the policy of the local high schools every where, that they are supplementary to the common schools, and are high in relation to them and not in relation to the Universities; and that they should not therefore be considered, except in rare instances, as taking the place which middle schools must occupy as intermediate between the highest local schools and the colleges, which is the proper sphere and function of the academical system.

The progress of popular education, so-called, does not consist (as it is so often falsely assumed to consist) in introducing *high* studies, and a great many of them, into a school having only one or two teachers, and thus make it *high*. For no progress is so sure as this to make a school the lowest of the low, in all the essential uses and qualities of education. The old staples of instruction, reading, writing, and arithmetic and grammar, can not be dispensed with in the popular schools; for their uses are grounded in the absolutely necessary wants of the youthful mind. Any system, then, which substitutes other studies for these, is one whose whole tendency is to deteriorate not to elevate the quality of education. We are not sure but that Latin may take the place of English grammar to some extent in the public schools, but it must be solely as a disciplinary study to teach general grammar, and not with a view to a full classical course in the local schools of any grade of excellence. Indeed, we are not sure but that English grammar had better be discarded entirely, if in the course of common school instruction it must be limited to only one or two terms, and then set aside as *finished*. And yet the text-books in that branch are as

> Thick as autumnal leaves that strew the brooks in Valombrosa;

though they were all unwritten until late in the eighteenth century, when the countless progeny began to be.

How the literature of the Elizabethan age and Queen Anne's time, when Addison and his peers wrote the Spectator, could have existed, when such a branch as English grammar was unknown in any

English or grammar school, is a mystery for some modern common school superintendent to solve. In this country arithmetic was taught in all the common schools without a text-book till after the Revolution, and geography was a study high enough to be a branch of college education; and yet these were the schools in which Washington and Franklin received all their elementary training. They were taught in school-houses not decent enough for an Irish shanty now, and yet Franklin, thus "fitted" for his calling, became such a master in philosophy and civil affairs as that he held the lightnings in his grasp and hurled tyrants from their thrones. How could he do all this, when in no grammar school on earth had the merest elements of the natural sciences even been heard of? And yet he did not underrate the grammar schools of his native city, or decry, as modern sciolists do, the value of classical learning, or establish Franklin medals for some school of practical and naturalistic studies, to the detriment and discouragement of so-called *dead* languages and *dry* and "uninteresting" branches of study.

But the grand argument against the academical system of middle schools and against colleges as well is, that pupils must not be domiciliated away from the supervision of parents and placed under the entire supervision of tutorial governors and teachers. It is assumed that there is "no place like home" for the higher gradations of mental culture as well as the lower. If all homes were places for intellectual development as good as we might conceive them to be, where the parents were themselves qualified in the best manner for the work of instruction and moral discipline, then it were well that home influences should predominate in every stage of intellectual growth. But the homes of the best and most learned men are not found to be thus adapted to the purposes of education. They lack both the power to advise and direct in respect to the best methods, especially in all the higher departments of learning. Even if well-educated parents understand the value of learning, they may yet be ignorant of its processes and best methods even while they enjoy its uses. Hence it is that liberally educated men, more than others, seek the best seats of learning for the education of their own children. They understand, as others do not, how that the local influences of home often tend to neutralize the best benefits which the formative or transformative power of a college or Academy exerts on a young and wayward mind. Nor does the argument hold any better, though often urged, that the public school system is any more in sympathy with the genius of our democratic institutions than the academical system in its middle or higher grades.

We do not deny that the public school tends strongly to modify and remove those social distinctions which it is the direct aim of home training, in many instances, to create and intensify. The boy of Beacon street may recite his lesson in the Boston Latin School on the same seat with the boy of Ann street; but the good influences of the morning session of each day, in obliterating factitious distinctions and creating good fellowship, may not last longer than the dinner-hour, when all the power of home associations resumes its undiminished sway. It is not so in those schools where the pupils come together from localities remote from each other, and from under the influence of social customs and notions most unlike. Here nothing is more common than to see the rich and the poor domiciliate together on grounds of perfect reciprocity, and forming the strongest fellowships in spite of antecedents of birth and position most diverse. If there can be found on earth a realization of that dream of politicians, a republic where there is a perfect equality of rights and privileges, and a perfect reciprocity of sympathy and social fellowship independent absolutely of the distinctions of the outside world, that realization is a community of students in an American Academy or college.

In the home or local system of schools the aim is really private education; and for ends more or less personal, though it be obtained at the public expense. In the academical or collegiate system of schools, the aim is a true public education, though it may be obtained by means legally private, that is, such as furnished by individuals or corporations.

The local system respects the parental will and dignity on the ground, that as parents, in their individual or social capacity, pay for the tuition of their children and appoint the teacher, they have a right to control all the methods and processes and influences of instruction; that is, they may say what shall and what shall not be taught. Such a policy as this, for the period of childhood during the time of rudimental training, is obviously the very best for the vast majority of pupils; since, during the earliest stages of education, the parents, who are the natural protectors of their children, are generally competent to act for them in respect to their intellectual as well as their physical wants. As the great majority of the young can never go much beyond the rudiments of all useful learning, the public school system is most obviously founded in the eternal verities of things. But the period of childhood and the training proper for that period has its natural range and limits, and these limits and the course proper for those limits can not be essentially changed so

as to substitute therefor the studies and the discipline of maturer years. This principle will not fail to be regarded if the idea of adolescence and full majority is admitted, which idea some educators seem to disregard, as do the Chinese and some parents nominally Christian also, since in their system of training the child is never of age till the parent dies, and not even then.

The recognition of the period of adolescence, in a system of education, demands a grade of schools in which the interest of the pupil in his own welfare is a consideration paramount to the parental will or dignity; and hence, although the parent may rightly control the course of the pupil so far as to direct the place of his education, yet, while in that place, the teacher stands in all respects *in loco parentis*, and the parent in all that pertains to the appropriate work of instruction and discipline never stands *in loco docentis.*

It is evident, therefore, that as the period of adolescence draws to its close, the aim of school training must more and more have a direct reference to the welfare of the pupil as the party mainly concerned; and less and less to that of the parent, except indeed so far as that, by sympathy and affection, he may regard the welfare of his child, at all times, as his own. But in the later stages of education, at the higher seminaries, the authority of home can not predominate in opposition to the teacher's labor and influence. The students must be held in subjection by a power stronger than that of any home influence can ordinarily be. Such a power a vigorous seat of learning affords, and it meets the wants of subjective training at the period when its force is most efficient and most needed

To curb the fiery heart of youth.

Such a power was exerted by Arnold at Rugby, and by Dr. Whewell, the master of Trinity at Cambridge, recently deceased. Such a power have many teachers, both among the living and the dead, exercised in the academic schools of our own land—a power which must forever make our Academies and colleges indispensable, since they supply those forces of strength which no family, or hamlet, or town, or city can furnish without their aid.

Every college graduate can understand, as others can not, the peculiar advantages of mental development and of those executive qualities of the manly character, which come as the incidental results of a public education, and which the training of home or of any local school, however excellent it may be in other respects, rarely confers.

Hence the necessity of a public education for places of public service and for all kinds of civil and ecclesiastical duties, which

require men of "large discourse" or liberal and comprehensive culture. Hence the necessity of colleges and universities, and hence, too, the need of having institutions which shall, in all their forces of moral and intellectual power, keep pace with the wants of our advancing American civilization, ultimately to be, in its maturity, the noblest in the world's history. We shall need universities as much better than Oxford and Cambridge, as the destiny of American society is to be better and more powerful than that of England or any of the continental kingdoms and empires.

But as preliminary to their ultimate enlargement, and as a condition of their efficiency even in their present form, we need a system of middle schools having the same great ends of social advancement in view, and tending to the same results, which it is the object of our highest seminaries to accomplish.

The Universities of England and the continent of Europe have for ages received all their annual accessions from the middle schools, in which the foundations of all sound education and training have been laid, the quality and degrees of which have been determined by the wisest of men, who have fully understood its uses as well as its processes and instruments. And the education obtained in the "great public schools" of England has exceeded, in the extent and value of classical training, that which the best American colleges have not furnished until within a recent period.

But the day has come when the colleges of this country must embrace within their curriculum other studies than the elemental studies of a classical or scientific course. Four years are too few to include the multitude of studies which a general course of liberal culture must embrace as the limit of graduation. And a great share of the classical and mathematical studies of the first two years of the college course, as now arranged, could be better attended to in middle schools, under good teachers and with proper endowments and accommodations. The temptations to dissipation would be far less and the standard of attainments far greater in studies, which, though pursued in the college, are really and altogether elemental, when the rank of scholarship in the English and European universities is considered.

So the middle schools are more desirable places than the college to lay the foundations of, not scholarship only, but of the highest qualities of manly character. Dr. Arnold's influence was such as to shield his pupils with a moral panoply of protection against the folly and dissoluteness of university life, the occasion of utter ruin to so many young men in all the high seats of learning.

There is need, then, not only of the continued existence of the best Academies of New England but of their great enlargement and improvement. They are needed to supply that lack of the best culture which the local schools of the rural sections of the country can never supply. They are needed as places of resort for training the best minds of both of the city and country under certain influences, which few purely local schools can have under the best of circumstances. They are needed to prepare for the colleges the best material to make good scholarship, much of which is found among the hill towns of New England, though they may be as rough as Mount Helicon, on whose slopes the muses did not deign the less to dwell, because they were wild and barren.

Bravo!

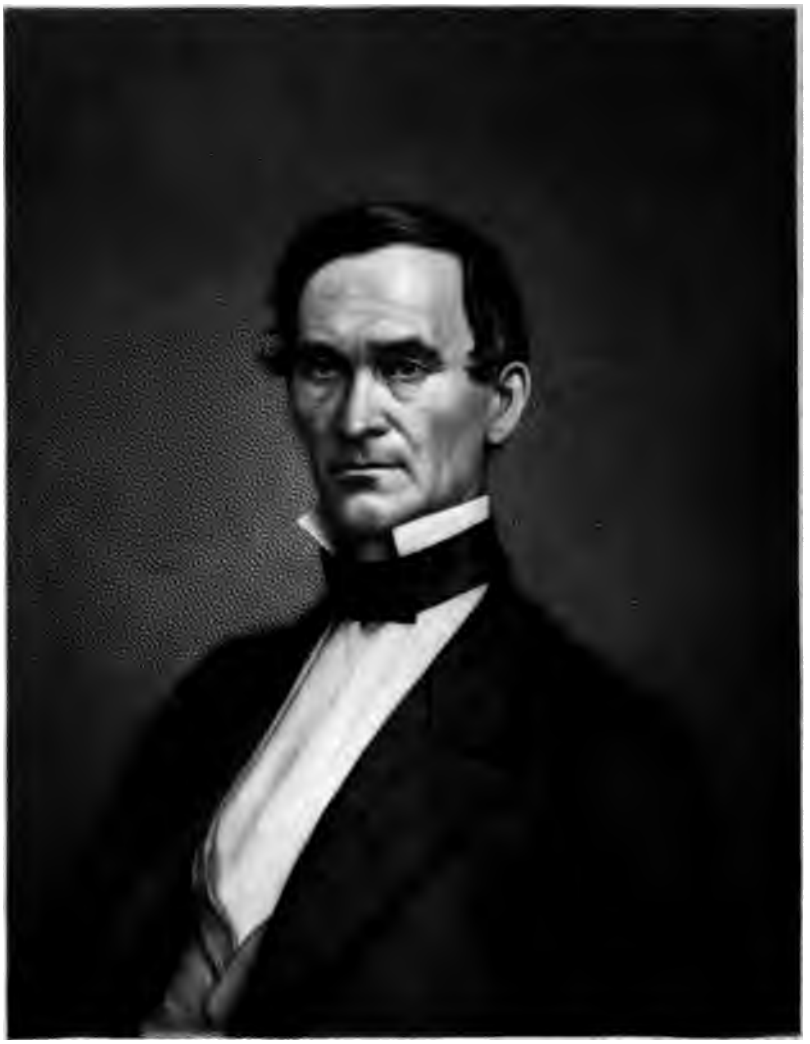
We need them that the proper work of all the local schools, both of the city and the country, may not be interfered with, in the vain attempt to make them answer for uses and purposes not belonging to their proper design, in educating the whole mass of the popular mind to the highest possible average of attainment at the public expense. The duty of sustaining the local schools, in all their grades, will be met by the American people, and the local schools will have attained their limit of perfection, not when they shall attempt to fit one out of a thousand boys as he ought to be to enter college, but to educate the nine hundred and ninety and nine, who can not and ought not to go to college, in the best possible manner, for not the learned professions but for the not less honorable callings which society demands shall be filled by well-educated and good citizens. It is perhaps enough that the State confine itself to this great work, the education of the people, by improving to their utmost capacity the local schools of every grade.

With respect to colleges and middle schools, it is perhaps all that we can expect, if we demand the kindly regard of the State and such scanty appropriations as can be afforded. For the history of the higher education of society shows that, in all ages of modern civilization at least, universities and classical schools have had to depend on the enlightened liberality of a few noble and generous benefactors. All the colleges and universities of England and the Continent, all the colleges of this country, the oldest and the youngest, all the important Academies and professional schools, are monuments of *private* liberality, supported chiefly by the endowments of those who, blessed by Providence with wealth, have left it as a legacy of perennial good for the successive generations of men, who, as they receive the benefit of their benefactions, revere and bless their memory with "perpetual benedictions."

II. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

WARREN BURTON.

REV. WARREN BURTON, author of "*District School as it was*," and "*Helps to Home Education*," was born in Wilton, New Hampshire, November 23, 1800. His mother, before her marriage, was a teacher, and the traditional reputation of her gentleness and goodness is embodied by the son in the character of "Mary Smith." His own happy training in the family of his grandparents, after the death of his father and mother, suggested those views and sentiments of the incalculable importance of the home as a school of Christian wisdom and love, which afterwards found expression in his teaching from the pulpit and by his pen. With no previous advantages than a district-school, he achieved by himself a preparation for college, with the occasional instructions of a good parish minister who lived two miles off; and entered old Harvard in 1817, where he graduated with distinction in 1821. After the usual probation of school-keeping, he entered the Theological Institution at Cambridge, and after a three years' course, was approved and in 1828 ordained and settled at East Cambridge. But this connection was soon amicably dissolved, and henceforth he devoted himself to special objects of philanthropy, the most prominent of which was the school and home training of children. By addresses formal and informal, in school-houses, lecture rooms, State-houses, and churches, by articles in the newspapers, contributions to educational journals, and by more formal publications, and by the widest correspondence and personal intercourse, Mr. Burton has arrested parental attention to this all important subject, and deserves, by the permanent good done, to be regarded as a public benefactor. His "*District School as it was*," from its lively and spirited pictures of the wretched condition of the common school in the rural portions of New England, was widely read in quarters where more formal expositions would not have been listened to or heeded, and helped to revolutionize public sentiment and public action in rural school edifices and management. His lecture on cultivating a taste for Natural Scenery—as the earliest, broadest, and liveliest exercise of the observing faculties, and the most direct method of reaching the imagination and the æsthethic portion of our nature—afterwards enlarged and published as "*Scenery Showing, or Word Painting, of the Beautiful, Picturesque, and Grand in Nature*," opened up a new field of educational discussion and practice. His "*Helps to Education in the Homes of our Country*," a volume of 368 pages, published in 1863, contains a Lecture on Parental Responsibility—a Lecture on Government, Management, and No Government in the Family—a Lecture on the Management of Self-hood—Suggestions on the Discipline of the Observing Faculties—Topics of Religious Education—The First Knowledge of the Creator—The First and Great Commandment—The Child's First Ideas of Jesus—The Bible—a series of subjects of the highest practical value discussed in a most interesting and masterly manner.



Yours Truly
B. T. Blewett

BENJAMIN T. BLEWETT.

BENJAMIN TURNER BLEWETT was born in Warren county, Kentucky, Sept. 17th, 1820. His father being a farmer in moderate circumstances, his studies, which were pursued at the best schools which the neighborhood afforded, were interrupted by farm work in summer till his fourteenth year and afterwards by teaching in winter. Several summers were spent in study as a private pupil of Josiah Pillsberry, Esq., to whose fidelity and influence upon his character Mr. Blewitt attributes more than to any other agency his subsequent success. At the age of twenty he united himself with the Baptist church, and abandoning his purpose of reading law, entered Georgetown College in 1841. Dependent entirely upon his own resources, he spent two years during his college course in teaching the College Academy, and graduated in 1847. After graduation he continued principal of the Academy for six years, taking an active interest in Sunday-schools and the cause of temperance.

In 1852 Mr. Blewitt took the charge of a High School at Russellville, at the time unfinished, unendowed, encumbered with a heavy debt, and moreover the object of a strong and active local hostility. A whole year of severe labor was spent in completing the building and in seeking funds to meet the expenses. The school was opened, but the proceeds of the first session barely paid the salaries of his assistants. His faith was staggered, but sustained by the sound judgment and zealous coöperative sympathy of an excellent wife, herself an able and highly successful teacher from New England, he entered upon another year's trial. A larger number of students was enrolled, public sentiment changed, opposition gave way, and the way seemed to be opening to success. The debt was paid and the school took a high stand among similar but much older institutions. It was now urged by many that the school be made a college. The trustees yielded, a charter was obtained, and Mr. Blewitt was elected President of a college without endowment, library, apparatus, or any other appliances, except a good building, a good number of students, and a good working faculty. The college classes were immediately formed, but new and complicated difficulties arose. It was seen that the institution could not succeed without an endowment. At this juncture a bequest of $30,000 was made by H. Q. Ewing, Esq., conditional upon the raising of as much in addition, and Pres. Blewitt was appointed agent to effect the purpose. He labored faithfully in the work but at length abandoned the field in despair and returned to his duties as instructor. But woman's energy came again to the rescue, and, relieved from all care at home, he returned to the task with a determination to succeed though the limited period had nearly expired. For the final effort a meeting of the friends of education was called during Commencement, which was attended with success, and he had the gratification of announcing on Commencement Day that Bethel College had secured a cash endowment of $40,000 and real estate to the value of nearly as much more. The valuable Ewing library, of near 2,000 volumes, had also been donated, and a good mathematical, philosophical, and chemical apparatus had been obtained. The success of the institution was now deemed secure, but in May, 1861, the students disbanded, many entering the Confederate army, Bethel College was suspended; and Mr. Blewitt removed to Augusta, Ky., and took charge of the College in that place with which he is still connected. Bethel College under other Trustees is now (1865) enjoying a large measure of prosperity.

WILLIAM D. HENKLE.

WILLIAM DOWNS HENKLE was born near Springfield, in Clark County, Ohio, October 8th, 1828, His father, Rev. Lemuel Henkle, died a few years after at Louisville, Kentucky, while stationed there as a minister, and his mother then returned to Urbana, Ohio, and afterwards to Springfield, where she supported herself and family by the use of the needle. Young Henkle was sent to such schools as offered until eleven years of age, when becoming tired of the restraint and dissatisfied with his progress under the defective methods then employed, he was suffered for two or three years to remain at home and run the streets and country. In the meantime he acquired a love for reading and by shoveling sand or driving teams earned money for the purchase of books, spending also much time in the village bookstore. He was now anxious to attend school again, and under such tutors as opportunity and his want of means afforded he applied himself to hard study and mastered Pike's and Talbott's Arithmetics and Kirkham's Grammar, and entered upon Burtt's Algebra. The Public High School was established about this time and here he began the study of Bailey's Algebra and Goodrich's Greek and Latin Lessons. When sixteen years old he taught his first district-school and for three years alternated between teaching and study, spending the latter portion of the time at Wittemburg College at Springfield, where he read Horace and Homer and continued the study of higher algebra and geometry. In 1847 the family returned to Urbana and here he taught a subscription school of seventy scholars, began a course of reading in medicine, but in 1848 became principal in Urbana Academy. In the Fall of this year a Teachers' Institute was held for two weeks in Urbana under the charge of Josiah Hurty, at which Mr. Henkle gave the instruction in grammar, to which subject he had for several years given especial attention. After the passage of the Union School Law in February, 1849, he secured its adoption by the town of Urbana, and upon the establishment of the High School he was elected its principal. In the Spring of 1850 he succeeded Prof. McFarland as mathematical instructor in the Male and Female Seminary at Greenfield, but after six months removed with his mother's family to Mechanicsburg, where he associated with Mr. Robert Wilson, a graduate of Belfast College, Ireland, in the management of the Seminary at that place. This association with a scholar of European education and long experience as a teacher, had a powerful influence in inciting Mr. Henkle to render his own education more mature, thorough, and practical. In 1853 he effected the establishment of a Union School at Mechanicsburg, as before at Urbana, and was its principal for a year, when he took charge of the classical department in Greenmount Boarding School near Richmond, Indiana, which he resigned in 1857 for the superintendency of the Richmond Public Schools at a salary of $1,000. The next year he removed to Indianapolis to act as principal of the High School and edit the "*Indiana School Journal.*" He had two years previously published a "*University Algebra,*" and in the Spring of 1859 prepared an "*Elementary Algebra.*" In the Fall of the same year he became professor of mathematics in the South Western Normal School at Lebanon, Ohio. In 1862 he was nominee of the Union party of the state for the office of School Commissioner but, with the rest of the ticket, failed to be elected. He then took charge of the Lebanon Union School, and in 1864 of the Union School at Salem, Ohio.

III. THE SCHOOL AND THE TEACHER IN LITERATURE.

Fifth Article.

ROBERT SOUTHEY—1774—1843.

ROBERT SOUTHEY in that quaint and remarkable book "*The Doctor, &c.*" has introduced much rare learning and eloquent composition to enforce instructive lessons on the training of children and the conduct of life—as in the following conversations at the Doctor's fireside, bearing on young Daniel's home education—which we introduce by a few extracts descriptive of the home and chimney-corner of Dr. Daniel Dove, as well as of Daniel, the son, and Daniel, the father, and the DOCTOR, the central figure of the composition.

BIRTH, PARENTAGE AND HOMESTEAD OF DR. DOVE.

DANIEL, the son of Daniel Dove and of Dinah his wife, was born near Ingleton in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on Monday, the twenty-second of April, old style, 1723, nine minutes and three seconds after three in the afternoon; on which day Marriage came in and Mercury was with the Moon; and the aspects were □ ♄ ♀ a week earlier, it would have been a most glorious trine of the Sun and Jupiter; circumstances which were all duly noted in the blank leaf of the family Bible.

Daniel, the father, was one of the race of men who unhappily are now almost extinct. He lived upon an estate of six-and-twenty acres which his father had possessed before him, all Doves and Daniels, in uninterrupted succession from time immemorial, farther than registers or title-deeds could ascend. The little church called Chapel le Dale stands about a bow-shot from the family house. There they had all been carried to the font; there they had each led his bride to the altar; and thither they had, each in his turn, been borne upon the shoulders of their friends and neighbors. Earth to earth they had been consigned there for so many generations, that half of the soil of the churchyard consisted of their remains. A hermit who might wish his grave to be as quiet as his cell, could imagine no fitter resting place. On three sides there was an irregular low stone wall, rather to mark the limits of the sacred ground, than to inclose it; on the fourth it was bounded by the brook whose waters proceed by a subterraneous channel from Wethercote cave. Two or three alders and rowan trees hung over the brook, and shed their leaves and seeds into the stream. Some bushy hazels grew at intervals along the lines of the wall; and a few ash trees, as the winds had sown them. To the east and west some fields adjoined it, in that state of half cultivation which gives a human character to

solitude: to the south, on the other side, the brook, the common with its limestone rocks peering every where above ground, extended to the foot of Ingleborough. A craggy hill, feathered with birch, sheltered it from the north.

The turf was as fine and soft as that of the adjoining hills; it was seldom broken, so scanty was the population to which it was appropriated; scarcely a thistle or a nettle deformed it, and the few tombstones which had been placed there were now themselves half buried. The sheep came over the wall when they listed, and sometimes took shelter in the porch from the storm. Their voices, and the cry of the kite wheeling above, were the only sounds which were heard there, except when the single bell which hung in its niche over the entrance tinkled for service on the Sabbath day, or with a slower tongue gave notice that one of the children of the soil was returning to the earth from which he sprung.

The house of the Doves was to the east of the church, under the same hill, and with the same brook in front; and the intervening fields belonged to the family. It was a low house, having before it a little garden of that size and character which showed that the inhabitants could afford to bestow a thought upon something more than mere bodily wants. You entered between two yew trees clipped to the fashion of two pawns. There were hollyhocks and sunflowers displaying themselves above the wall; roses and sweet peas under the windows, and the everlasting pea climbing the porch. The rest of the garden lay behind the house, partly on the slope of the hill. It had a hedge of gooseberry bushes, a few apple trees, pot herbs in abundance, onions, cabbages, turnips and carrots; potatoes had hardly yet found their way into these remote parts: and in a sheltered spot under the crag, open to the south, were six beehives, which made the family perfectly independent of West India produce. Tea was in those days as little known as potatoes, and for all other things honey supplied the place of sugar.

The house consisted of seven rooms, the dairy and cellar included, which were both upon the ground floor. As you entered the kitchen there was on the right one of those open chimneys which afford more comfort in a winter's evening than the finest register stove; in front of the chimney stood a wooden beehive chair, and on each side was a long oak seat with a back to it, the seats serving as chests, in which the oaten bread was kept. They were of the darkest brown, and well polished by constant use. On the back of each were the same initials as those over the door, with the date 1610. The great oak table, and the chest in the best kitchen which held the house linen, bore the same date. The chimney was well hung with bacon, the rack which covered half the ceiling bore equal marks of plenty; mutton hams were suspended from other parts of the ceiling; and there was an odor of cheese from the adjoining dairy, which the turf fire, though perpetual as that of the magi or of the Vestal virgins, did not overpower. A few pewter dishes were ranged above the trenchers, opposite the door on a conspicuous shelf. The other treasures of the family were in an open triangular cupboard, fixed in one of the corners of the best kitchen, halfway from the floor, and touching the ceiling. They consisted of a silver saucepan, a silver goblet, and four apostle spoons. Here also King Charles's Golden Rules were pasted against the wall, and a large print of Daniel in the Lion's Den. The lions were bedaubed with yellow, and the prophet was bedaubed with blue, with a red patch upon each of his cheeks: if he had been like his

picture he might have frightened the lions: but happily there were no "judges" in the family, and it had been bought for its name's sake. The other print which ornamented the room had been purchased from a like feeling, though the cause was not so immediately apparent. It represented a ship in full sail, with Joseph and the Virgin Mary, and the Infant on board, and a dove flying behind as if to fill the sails with the motion of its wings. Six black chairs were ranged along the wall, where they were seldom disturbed from their array. They had been purchased by Daniel the grandfather upon his marriage, and were the most costly purchase that had ever been made in the family; for the goblet was a legacy. The backs were higher than the head of the tallest man when seated; the seats flat and shallow, set in a round frame, unaccommodating in their material, more unaccommodating in shape; the backs also were of wood rising straight up, and ornamented with balls, and lozenges, and embossments; and the legs and crossbars were adorned in the same taste. Over the chimney were two peacocks' feathers, some of the dry silky pods of the honesty flower, and one of those large "sinuous shells" so finely thus described by Landor.

Of pearly hue
Within, and they that lustre have imbibed
In the sun's palace porch; where, when unyoked,
His chariot wheel stands midway in the wave.
Shake one, and it awakens; then apply
Its polished lips to your attentive ear,
And it remembers its august abodes,
And murmurs as the ocean murmurs there.

There was also a head of Indian corn there, and a back scratcher, of which the hand was ivory and the handle black. This had been a present of Daniel the grandfather to his wife. The three apartments above served equally for store-rooms and bedchambers. William Dove the brother slept in one, and Agatha the maid, or Haggy, as she was called, in another.

THE LIBRARY AND READING OF A WELL-TO-DO YEOMAN ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

Happy for Daniel, he lived before the age of magazines, reviews, cyclopædias, elegant extracts, and literary newspapers, so that he gathered the fruit of knowledge for himself, instead of receiving it from the dirty fingers of a retail vender. His books were few in number, but they were all weighty either in matter or in size. They consisted of the Morte d'Arthur in the fine black-letter edition of Copland; Plutarch's Morals, and Pliny's Natural History, two goodly folios, full as an egg of meat, and both translated by that old worthy, Philemon, who, for the service which he rendered to his contemporaries and to his countrymen, deserves to be called the best of the Hollands, without disparaging either the lord or the doctor of that appellation. The whole works of Joshua Sylvester: (whose name, let me tell thee, reader, in passing, was accented upon the first syllable by his contemporaries, not as now upon the second:) Jeafl Pettit's History of the Netherlands, translated and continued by Edward Grimeston, another worthy of the Philemon order; Sir Kenelm Digby's Discourses; Stowe's Chronicle; Joshua Barnes' Life of Edward III.; "Ripley Revived, by Eirenæus Philalethes, and an Englishman styling himself Citizen of the World," with its mysterious frontispiece representing the *Domus Naturæ*, to which, *Nil deest nisi claris*: the Pilgrim's Progress; two volumes of

Ozell's translation of the Rabelais; Latimer's Sermons; and the last volume of Fox's Martyr's, which latter book had been brought him by his wife. The Pilgrim's Progress was a godmother's present to his son: the odd volumes of Rabelais he had picked up at Kendal, at a sale, in a lot with Ripley Revived and Plutarch's Morals: the others he had inherited.

Daniel had looked into all these books, read most of them, and believed all that he read, except Rabelais, which he could not tell what to make of. He was not, however, one of those persons who complacently suppose everything to be nonsense which they do not perfectly comprehend, or flatter themselves that they do. His simple heart judged of books by what they ought to be, little knowing what they are. It never occurred to him that anything would be printed which was not worth printing, anything which did not convey either reasonable delight or useful instruction: and he was no more disposed to doubt the truth of what he read, than to question the veracity of his neighbor, or any one who had no interest in deceiving him. A book carried with it to him authority in its very aspect. The Morte d'Arthur, therefore, he received for authentic history, just as he did the painful chronicle of honest John Stowe, and the Barnesian labors of Joshua the self-satisfied: there was nothing in it indeed which stirred his English blood like the battles of Cressy, and Poictiers, and Najara; yet, on the whole, he preferred it to Barnes's story, believed in Sir Tor, Sir Tristram, Sir Lancelot, and Sir Lamorack as entirely as in Sir John Chandos, the Captal de Buche, and the Black Prince, and liked them better.

Latimer and Du Bartas he used sometimes to read aloud on Sundays; and if the departed take cognizance of what passes on earth, and poets derive any satisfaction from that posthumous applause which is generally the only reward of those who deserve it, Sylvester might have found some compensation for the undeserved neglect into which his works had sunk, by the full and devout delight which his rattling rhymes and quaint collocations afforded to this reader. The silver-tongued Sylvester, however, was reserved for a Sabbath book; as a weekday author Daniel preferred Pliny, for the same reason that bread and cheese, or a rasher of hung mutton, contented his palate better than a sillabub. He frequently regretted that so knowing a writer had never seen or heard of Wethercote and Yordas caves: the ebbing and flowing spring at Giggleswick, Malham Cove, and Gordale Scar, that he might have described them among the wonders of the world. *Omne ignotum pro magnifico* is a maxim which will not in all cases hold good. There are things which we do not undervalue because we are familiar with them, but which are admired the more, the more thoroughly they are known and understood; it is thus with the grand objects of nature and the finest works of art—with whatsoever is truly great and excellent. Daniel was not deficient in imagination; but no description of places which he had never seen, however exaggerated, (as such things always are,) impressed him so strongly as these objects in his own neighborhood, which he had known from childhood. Three or four times in his life it happened that strangers, with a curiosity as uncommon in that age as it is general in this, came from afar to visit these wonders of the West Riding, and Daniel accompanied them with a delight such as he never experienced on any other occasion.

But the author in whom he delighted most was Plutarch, of whose works he was lucky enough to possess the worthier half: if the other had perished, Plutarch would not have been a popular writer, but he would have held a higher

place in the estimation of the judicious. Daniel could have posed a candidate for university honors, and perhaps the examiner too, with some of the odd learning which he had stored up in his memory from these great repositories of ancient knowledge. Refusing all reward for such services, the strangers to whom he officiated as a guide, though they perceived that he was an extraordinary person, were little aware how much information he had acquired, and of how strange a kind. His talk with them did not go beyond the subjects which the scenes they came to visit naturally suggested, and they wondered more at the questions he asked, than at anything which he advanced himself: for his disposition was naturally shy, and that which had been bashfulness in youth assumed the appearance of reserve as he advanced in life; for having none to communicate with upon his favorite studies, he lived in an intellectual world of his own, a mental solitude as complete as that of Alexander Selkirk or Robinson Crusoe. Even to the curate, his conversation, if he had touched upon his books, would have been heathen Greek; and to speak the truth plainly, without knowing a letter of that language, he knew more about the Greeks than nine-tenths of the clergy at that time, including all the dissenters, and than nine-tenths of the schoolmasters also.

Our good Daniel had none of that confidence which so usually and so unpleasantly characterizes self-taught men. In fact, he was by no means aware of the extent of his acquirements, all that he knew in this kind having been acquired for amusement, not for use. He had never attempted to teach himself anything. These books had lain in his way in boyhood, or fallen in it afterward; and the perusal of them, intently as it was followed, was always accounted by him to be nothing more than recreation. None of his daily business had ever been neglected for it; he cultivated his fields and his garden, repaired his walls, looked to the stable, tended his cows, and salved his sheep, as diligently and as contentedly as if he had possessed neither capacity nor inclination for any higher employments. Yet Daniel was one of those men who, if disposition and aptitude were not overruled by circumstances, would have grown pale with study, instead of being bronzed and hardened by sun, and wind, and rain. There were in him undeveloped talents which might have raised him to distinction as an antiquary, a virtuoso of the Royal Society, a poet, or a theologian, to whichever course the bias in his ball of fortune had inclined. But he had not a particle of envy in his composition. He thought, indeed, that if he had had grammar learning in his youth like the curate, he would have made more use of it; but there was nothing either of the sourness or bitterness (call it which you please) of repining in this natural reflection.

Never, indeed, was any man more contented with doing his duty in that state of life to which it had pleased God to call him. And well he might be so, for no man ever passed through the world with less to disquiet or to sour him. Bred up in habits which secured the continuance of that humble but sure independence in which he was born, he had never known what it was to be anxious for the future. At the age of twenty-five he had brought home a wife, the daughter of a little landholder like himself, with fifteen pounds for her portion, and the true love of his youth proved to him a faithful helpmate in those years when the dream of life is over, and we live in its realities. Their only child was healthy, apt, and docile, to all appearance as happily disposed in mind and body as a father's heart could wish. If they had fine weather for winning their

hay or shearing their corn, they thanked God for it; if the season proved unfavorable the labor was only a little the more, and the crop a little the worse. Their stations secured them from want, and they had no wish beyond it. What more had Daniel to desire.

RICHARD GUY, THE SCHOOLMASTER OF INGLETON.

Having nothing to desire for himself, Daniel's ambition had taken a natural direction and fixed upon his son. He was resolved that the boy should be made a scholar; not with the prospect of advancing him in the world, but in the hope that he might become a philosopher, and take as much delight in the books which he would inherit as his father had done before him. Riches, and rank, and power appeared in his judgment to be nothing when compared to philosophy; and herein he was as true a philosopher as if he had studied in the Porch, or walked the groves of Academus.

[A little before young Daniel was capable of more instruction than could be given him at home, there came a schoolmaster in declining life to settle at Ingleton.]

Richard Guy was his name; he is the person to whom the lovers of old rhyme are indebted for the preservation of the old poem of Flodden Field, which he transcribed from an ancient manuscript, and which was printed from his transcript by Thomas Gent of York. In his way through the world, which had not been along the king's high Dunstable road, Guy had picked up a competent share of Latin, a little Greek, some practical knowledge of physic, and more of its theory; astrology enough to cast a nativity, and more acquaintance with alchymy than has often been possessed by one who never burnt his fingers in its processes. These acquirements were grafted on a disposition as obliging as it was easy; and he was beholden to nature for an understanding so clear and quick that it might have raised him to some distinction in the world if he had not been under the influence of an imagination at once lively and credulous. Five-and-fifty years had taught him none of the world's wisdom; they had sobered his mind without maturing it; but he had a wise heart, and the wisdom of the heart is worth all other wisdom.

Daniel was too far advanced in life to fall in friendship; he felt a certain degree of attractiveness in this person's company; there was, however, so much of what may better be called reticence than reserve in his own quiet habitual manners, that it would have been long before their acquaintance ripened into anything like intimacy, if an accidental circumstance had not brought out the latent sympathy which on both sides had till then rather been apprehended than understood. They were walking together one day when young Daniel, who was then in his sixth year, looking up in his father's face, proposed this question: "Will it be any harm, father, if I steal five beans when next I go into Jonathan Dowthwaites, if I can do it without any one's seeing me?"

"And what wouldst thou steal beans for," was the reply, "when anybody would give them to thee, and when thou knowest there are plenty at home?"

"But it won't do to have them given, father," the boy replied. "They are to charm away my warts. Uncle William says I must steal five beans, a bean for every wart, and tie them carefully up in paper, and carry them to a place where two roads cross, and then drop them, and walk away without ever once looking behind me. And then the warts will go away from me, and come upon the hands of the person that picks up the beans."

"Nay, boy," the father made answer; "that charm was never taught by a white witch! If thy warts are a trouble to thee, they would be a trouble to any one else; and to get rid of an evil from ourselves, Daniel, by bringing it upon another, is against our duty to our neighbor. Have nothing to do with a charm like that!"

"May I steal a piece of raw beef then," rejoined the boy, "and rub the warts with it and bury it? For uncle says that will do, and as the beef rots, so the warts will waste away."

"Daniel," said the father, "those can be no lawful charms that begin with stealing; I could tell thee how to cure thy warts in a better manner. There is an infallible way, which is by washing the hands in moonshine, but then the moonshine must be caught in a bright silver basin. You wash and wash in the basin, and a cold moisture will be felt upon the hands, proceeding from the cold and moist rays of the moon."

"But what shall we do for a silver basin?" said little Daniel.

The father answered, "A pewter dish might be tried if it were made very bright; but it is not deep enough. The brass kettle, perhaps, might do better."

"Nay," said Guy, who had now begun to attend with some interest, "the shape of a kettle is not suitable. It should be a concave vessel, so as to concentrate the rays. Joshua Wilson, I dare say, would lend his brass basin, which he can very well spare at the hour you want it, because nobody comes to be shaved by moonlight. The moon rises early enough to serve at this time. If you come in this evening at six o'clock, I will speak to Joshua in the meantime, and have the basin as bright and shining as a good scouring can make it. The experiment is curious, and I should like to see it tried. Where, Daniel, didst thou learn it?" "I read it," replied Daniel, "in Sir Kenelm Digby's Discourses, and he says it never fails."

Accordingly the parties met at the appointed hour. Mambrino's helmet when new from the armorers, or when furbished for a tournament, was not brighter than Guy had rendered the inside of the barber's basin. Schoolmaster, father, and son retired to a place out of observation, by the side of the river, a wild stream tumbling among the huge stones which it had brought down from the hills. On one of these stones sat Daniel the elder, holding the basin in such an inclination towards the moon that there should be no shadow in it; Guy directed the boy where to place himself so as not to intercept the light, and stood looking complacently on, while young Daniel revolved his hands one in another within the empty basin, as if washing them. "I feel them cold and clammy, father!" said the boy. (It was the beginning of November.) "Ay," replied the father, "that's the cold moisture of the moon!" "Ay!" echoed the schoolmaster, and nodded his head in confirmation.

The operation was repeated on the two following nights; and Daniel would have kept up his son two hours later than his regular time of rest to continue it on the third if the evening had not set in with clouds and rain. In spite of the patient's belief that the warts would waste away and were wasting, (for Prince Hohenlohe could not require more entire faith than was given on this occasion,) no alteration could be perceived in them at a fortnight's end. Daniel thought the experiment had failed because it had not been repeated sufficiently often, and perhaps continued long enough. But the schoolmaster was of opinion that the cause of failure was in the basin: for that silver being the lunar

metal would by affinity assist the influential virtues of the moonlight, which finding no such affinity in a mixed metal of baser compounds, might contrariwise have its potential qualities weakened, or even destroyed, when received in a brazen vessel, and reflected from it. Flossofer Daniel assented to this theory. Nevertheless, as the child got rid of his troublesome excrescences in the course of three or four months, all parties, disregarding the lapse of time at first, and afterwards fairly forgetting it, agreed that the remedy had been effectual, and Sir Kenelm, if he had been living, might have procured the solemn attestation of men more veracious than himself that moonshine was an infallible cure for warts.

A KIND SCHOOLMASTER AND A HAPPY BOY.

Though happily thou wilt say that wands be to be wrought when they are green, lest they rather break than bend when they be dry, yet know also that he that bendeth a twig because he would see if it would bow by strength, may chance to have a crooked tree when he would have a straight.—EUPHUES.

From this time the two flossofers were friends. Daniel seldom went to Ingleton without looking in upon Guy, if it were between school hours. Guy on his part would walk as far with him on the way back as the tether of his own time allowed, and frequently on Saturdays and Sundays he strolled out and took a seat by Daniel's fireside. Even the wearying occupation of hearing one generation of urchins after another repeat *a-b-ab*, hammering the first rules of arithmetic into leaden heads, and pacing like a horse in a mill the same dull dragging round day after day, had neither diminished Guy's good nature, nor lessened his love for children. He had from the first conceived a liking for young Daniel, both because of the right principle which was evinced by the manner in which he proposed the question concerning stealing the beans, and of the profound gravity (worthy of a flossofer's son) with which he behaved in the affair of the moonshine. All that he saw and heard of him tended to confirm this favorable prepossession; and the boy, who had been taught to read in the Bible and in Stowe's Chronicle, was committed to his tuition at seven years of age.

Five days in the week (for in the North of England Saturday as well as Sunday is a sabbath to the schoolmaster) did young Daniel, after supping his porringer of oatmeal pottage, set off to school, with a little basket containing his dinner in his hand. This provision usually consisted of oatcake and cheese, the latter in goodly proportion, but of the most frugal quality, whatever cream the milk afforded having been consigned to the butter tub. Sometimes it was a piece of cold bacon or cold pork; and in winter there was the luxury of a shred pie, which is a coarse north country edition of the pie abhorred by Puritans. The distance was in those days called two miles; but miles of such long measure that they were for him a good hour's walk at a cheerful pace. He never loitered on the way, being at all times brisk in his movements, and going to school with a spirit as light as when he returned from it, like one whose blessed lot it was never to have experienced, and therefore never to stand in fear of severity or unkindness. For he was not more a favorite with Guy for his docility, and regularity, and diligence, than he was with his schoolfellows for his thorough good nature and a certain original oddity of humor.

There are some boys who take as much pleasure in exercising their intellectual faculties, as others do when putting forth the power of arms and legs

in boisterous exertion. Young Daniel was from his childhood fond of books. William Dove use to say he was a chip of the old block; and this hereditary disposition was regarded with much satisfaction by both parents, Dinah having no higher ambition nor better wish for her son, than that he might prove like his father in all things. This being the bent of his nature, the boy having a kind master as well as a happy home, never tasted of what old Lily calls (and well might call) the wearisome bitterness of the scholar's learning. He was never subject to the brutal discipline of the Udals, and Busby's, and Bowyers, and Parrs, and other less notorious tyrants who have trodden in their steps; nor was any of that inhuman injustice ever exercised upon him to break his spirit, for which it is to be hoped Dean Colet has paid in purgatory: to be hoped, I say, because if there be no purgatory, the dean may have gone farther and fared worse. Being the only *Latiner* in the school, his lessons were heard with more interest and less formality. Guy observed his progress with almost as much delight and as much hope as Daniel himself. A schoolmaster who likes his vocation feels towards the boys who deserve his favor something like a thrifty and thriving father towards the children for whom he is scraping together wealth; he is contented that his humble and patient industry should produce fruit, not for himself, but for them, and looks with pride to a result in which it is impossible for him to partake, and which in all likelihood he may never live to see. Even some of the old phlebotomists have had this feeling to redeem them.

EXCEPTIONS TO ONE OF KING SOLOMON'S RULES.

"Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old he will not depart from it." Generally speaking, it will be found so; but is there any other rule to which there are so many exceptions?

Ask the serious Christian, as he calls himself, or the professor, (another and more fitting appellative which the Christian Pharisees have chosen for themselves,) ask him whether he has found it hold good. Whether his sons, when they attained to years of discretion, (which are the most indiscreet years in the course of human life,) have profited as he expected by the long extemporaneous prayers to which they listened night and morning, the sad Sabbaths which they were compelled to observe, and the soporific sermons which closed the domestic religiosities of those melancholy days. Ask them if this discipline has prevented them from running headlong into the follies and vices of the age—from being birdlimed by dissipation—or caught in the spider's web of sophistry and unbelief. "It is no doubt a true observation," says Bishop Patrick, "that the ready way to make the minds of youth grow awry, is to lace them too hard, by denying them their just freedom."

Ask the old faithful servant of Mammon, whom Mammon has rewarded to his heart's desire, and in whom the acquisition of riches has only increased his eagerness for acquiring more—ask him whether he has succeeded in training up his heir to the same service. He will tell you that the young man is to be found upon race grounds, and in gaming-houses, that he is taking his swing of extravagance and excess, and is on the high road to ruin.

Ask the wealthy Quaker, the pillar of the meeting—most orthodox in heterodoxy—who never wore a garment of forbidden cut or color, never bent his body in salutation, or his knees in prayer—never uttered the heathen name of

a day or month, nor ever addressed himself to any person without religiously speaking illegitimate English—ask him how it has happened that the tailor has converted his sons. He will fold his hands, and twirl his thumbs mournfully in silence. It has not been for want of training them in the way wherein it was his wish that they should go.

You are about, sir, to send your son to a public school; Eton or Westminster; Winchester or Harrow; Rugby or the Charterhouse, no matter which. He may come from either an accomplished scholar to the utmost extent that school education can make him so; he may be the better both for its discipline and its want of discipline; it may serve him excellently well as a preparatory school for the world into which he is about to enter. But also he may come away an empty coxcomb or a hardened brute—a spendthrift—a profligate—a blackguard or a sot.

To put a boy in the way he should go, is like sending out a ship well found, well manned and stored, and with a careful captain; but there are rocks and shallows in her course, winds and currents to be encountered, and all the contingencies and perils of the sea.

How often has it been seen that sons, not otherwise deficient in duty towards their parents, have, in the most momentous concerns of life, taken the course most opposite to that in which they were trained to go, going wrong where the father would have directed them aright, or taking the right path in spite of all inducements and endeavors for leading them wrong!

No such disappointment was destined to befall our Daniel. The way in which he trained up his son was that into which the bent of the boy's own nature would have led him; and all circumstances combined to favor the tendency of his education. The country abounding in natural objects of sublimity and beauty (some of these singular in their kind) might have impressed a duller imagination than had fallen to his lot; and that imagination had time enough for its workings during his solitary walks to and from school morning and evening. His home was in a lonely spot; and having neither brother nor sister, nor neighbors near enough in any degree to supply their place as playmates, he became his father's companion imperceptibly as he ceased to be his fondling. And the effect was hardly less apparent in Daniel than in the boy. He was no longer the same taciturn person as of yore; it seemed as if his tongue had been loosened, and when the reservoirs of his knowledge were opened they flowed freely.

Their chimney-corner on a winter's evening presented a group not unworthy of Sir Joshua's pencil. There sat Daniel, richer in marvelous stories than ever traveler who in the days of mendacity returned from the East; the peat fire shining upon a countenance which, weather hardened as it was, might have given the painter a model for a patriarch, so rare was the union which it exhibited of intelligence, benevolence, and simplicity. There sat the boy with open eyes and ears, raised head, and fallen lip, in all the happiness of wonder and implicit belief. There sat Dinah, not less proud of her husband's learning than of the towardly disposition and promising talents of her son—twirling the thread at her spinning-wheel, but attending to all that passed; and when there was a pause in the discourse, fetching a deep sigh, and exclaiming, "Lord bless us! what wonderful things there are in the world!" There also sat Haggy, knitting stockings, and sharing in the comforts and enjoyments of the family

when the day's work was done. And there sat William Dove—[who was born with one of those heads in which the thin partition which divides great wits from folly is wanting. Though all was not there, there was a great deal. Some of his faculties were more acute than ordinary, and his temper had never been soured by ill usage. His memory was retentive of all curious proverbial wisdom and traditional lore, and had he come into the world a century sooner, he would have been taken *nolens volens* into some baron's household, to wear motley, make sport for the guests and domestics, and live in fear of the rod. But it was his better fortune to live in an age when this calamity rendered him liable to no such oppression, and to be precisely in that station which secured for him all the enjoyments of which he was capable, and all the care he needed. In higher life, he would probably have been consigned to the keeping of strangers who would have taken charge of him for pay; in a humbler degree he must have depended upon the parish for support; or have been made an inmate of one of those moral lazar-houses in which age and infancy, the harlot and the idiot, the profligate and the unfortunate are herded together.

William Dove escaped these aggravations of calamity. He escaped also that persecution to which he would have been exposed in populous places where boys run loose in packs, and harden one another in impudence, mischief, and cruelty. Natural feeling, when natural feeling is not corrupted, leads men to regard persons in his condition with a compassion not unmixed with awe. It is common with the country people when they speak of such persons to point significantly at the head and say, '*Tis not all there:* words denoting a sense of the mysteriousness of our nature which perhaps they feel more deeply on this than any other occasion. No outward and visible deformity can make them so truly apprehend how fearfully and wonderfully we are made.

William Dove's was not a case of fatuity. Though *all* was not there, there was a great deal. He was what is called *half saved.* Some of his faculties were more acute than ordinary, but the power of self-conduct was entirely wanting in him. Fortunately, it was supplied by a sense of entire dependance which produced entire docility. A dog does not obey his master more dutifully than William obeyed his brother; and in this obedience there was nothing of fear; with all the strength and simplicity of a child's love, it had also the character and merit of a moral attachment.

The professed and privileged fool was generally characterized by a spice of knavery, and not unfrequently of maliciousness: the unnatural situation in which he was placed tended to excite such propensities, and even to produce them. William had shrewdness enough for the character, but nothing of this appeared in his disposition; ill usage might perhaps have awakened it, and to a fearful degree, if he had proved as sensible to injury as he was to kindness. But he had never felt an injury. He could not have been treated with more tenderness in Turkey, (where a degree of holiness is imputed to persons in his condition) than was uniformly shown him within the little sphere of his perambulations. It was surprising how much he had picked up within that little sphere. Whatever event occurred, whatever tale was current, whatever traditions were preserved, whatever superstitions were believed, William knew them all; and all that his insatiable ear took in, his memory hoarded. Half the proverbial sayings in Ray's volume were in his head, and as many more with which Ray was unacquainted. He knew many of the stories which our chil-

dren are now reading as novelties in the selections from Grimm's *Kinder-und Haus Marchen*, and as many of those which are collected in the Danish Folk Sagn. And if some zealous lover of legendary lore (like poor John Leyden, or Sir Walter Scott) had fallen in with him, the Shaksperian commentators might perhaps have had the whole story of St. Withold; the Wolf of the World's End might have been identified with Fenris, and found to be a relic of the Scalds: and Rauf Collyer and John the Reeve might still have been as well known as Adam Bell, and Clym of the Clough, and William of Cloudeslie.

Light lie the earth upon the bones of Richard Guy, the schoolmaster of Ingleton! He never consumed birch enough in his vocation to have made a besom; and his ferula was never applied unless when some moral offense called for a chastisement that would be felt. There is a closer connection between good nature and good sense than is commonly supposed. A sour, ill-tempered pedagogue would have driven Daniel through the briars and brambles of the grammar and foundered him in its sloughs; Guy led him gently along the greensward. He felt that childhood should not be made altogether a season of painful acquisition, and that the fruits of the sacrifices then made are uncertain as to the account to which they may be turned, and are also liable to the contingencies of life at least, if not otherwise jeopardized. "*Puisque le jour peut lui manquer, laissons le un peu jouir de l'Aurore!*" (Lest the day should not be his, let him enjoy the *dawn*.) The precept which warmth of imagination inspired in Jean Jacques was impressed upon Guy's practice by gentleness of heart. He never crammed the memory of his pupil with such horrific terms as prothesis, aphæresis, epenthesis, syncope, paragoge, and apocope; never questioned him concerning appositio, evocatio, syllepsis, prolepsis, zeugma, synthesis, antiptosis, and synecdoche; never attempted to deter him (as Lily says boys are above all things to be deterred) from those faults which Lily also says, seem almost natural to the English—the heinous faults of iotacism, lambdacism, (which Alcibiades effected,) ischnotesism, trauli'sm, and plateasm. But having grounded him well in the nouns and verbs, and made him understand the concords, he then followed in part the excellent advice of Lily thus given in his address to the reader:—

"When these concords be well known unto them, (an easy and pleasant pain if the foregrounds be well and thoroughly beaten in,) let them not continue in learning of the rules orderly, as they lie in their syntax, but rather learn some pretty book, wherein is contained not only the eloquence of the tongue, but also a good plain lesson of honesty and godliness; and thereof take some little sentence as it lieth, and learn to make the same first out of English into Latin, not seeing the book, or construing it thereupon. And if there fall any necessary rule of the syntax to be known, then to learn it, as the occasion of the sentence giveth cause that day; which sentence once made well, and as nigh as may be with the words of the book, then to take the book and construe it; and so shall he be less troubled with the parsing of it, and easiliest carry his lesson in mind."

Guy followed this advice in part, and in part he deviated from it, upon Lily's own authority, as "judging that the most sufficient way which he saw to be the readiest mean;" while, therefore, he exercised his pupil in writing Latin pursuant to this plan, he carried him on faster in construing, and promoted the boy's progress by gratifying his desire of getting forward. When he had done

with Cordery, Erasmus was taken up; for some of Erasmus's colloquies were in those days used as a school-book, and the most attractive one that could be put into a boy's hands. After he had got through this, the aid of an English version was laid aside. And here Guy departed from the ordinary course, not upon any notion that he could improve upon it, but merely because he happened to possess an old book composed for the use of schools, which was easy enough to suit young Daniel's progress in the language, and might, therefore, save the cost of purchasing Justin, or Phædrus, or Cornelius Nepos, or Eutropius—to one or other of which he would otherwise have been introduced.

Now it has sometimes appeared to me, that, in like manner, boys might acquire their first knowledge of Latin from authors very inferior to those which are now used in all schools; provided the matter was unexceptionable and the Latinity good; and that they should not be introduced to the standard works of antiquity till they are of an age in some degree to appreciate what they read.

If the dead have any cognizance of posthumous fame, one would think it must abate somewhat of the pleasure with which Virgil and Ovid regard their earthly immortality, when they see to what base purposes their productions are applied. That their verses should be administered to boys in regular doses, as lessons or impositions, and some dim conception of their meaning whipped into the tail when it has failed to penetrate the head, can not be just the sort of homage to their genius which they anticipated or desired.

Not from any reasonings or refinements of this kind, but from the mere accident of possessing the book, Guy put into his pupil's hands the Dialogues of Johannes Ravisius Textor. Jean Tixier, Seigneur de Ravisy, in the Nivernois, who thus latinized his name, is a person whose works, according to Baillet's severe censure, were buried in the dust of a few petty colleges and unfrequented shops, more than a century ago. He was, however, in his day, a person of no mean station in the world of letters, having been rector of the university of Paris, at the commencement of the sixteenth century; and few, indeed, are the writers whose books have been so much used; for perhaps no other author ever contributed so largely to the manufacture of exercises, whether in prose or verse, and of sermons also. Textor may be considered as the first compiler of the *Gradus ad Parnassum;* and that collection of apothegms was originally formed by him, which Conrade Lycosthenes enlarged and rearranged; which the Jesuits adopted after expurgating it; and which during many generations, served as one of the standard commonplace books for commonplace divines in this country as well as on the Continent.

But though Textor was continually working in classical literature with a patience and perseverance which nothing but the delight he experienced in such occupations could have sustained, he was without a particle of classical taste. His taste was that of the age wherein he flourished, and these his dialogues are moralities in Latin verse. The designs and thoughts, which would have accorded with their language had they been written either in old French or old English, appear, when presented in Latinity, which is always that of a scholar, and largely interwoven with scraps from familiar classics, as strange as Harlequin and Pantaloon would do in heroic costume.

Earth opens the first of these curious compositions with a bitter complaint for the misfortunes which it is her lot to witness. Age (*Ætas*) overbears the lamentation, and inquires the cause; and after a dialogue, in which the author

makes the most liberal use of his own commonplaces, it appears that the perishable nature of all sublunary things is the cause of this mourning. *Ætas* endeavors to persuade *Terra* that her grief is altogether unreasonable by such brief and cogent observations as *Fata Jubent, Fata volunt, Ita Diis placitum.* Earth asks the name of her philosophic consoler, but upon discovering it, calls her *falsa virago*, and *meretrix*, and abuses her as being the very author of all the evils that distress her. However, *Ætas* succeeds in talking *Terra* into better humor, advises her to exhort man that he should not set his heart upon perishable things, and takes her leave as *Homo* enters. After a recognition between mother and son, *Terra* proceeds to warn *Homo* against all the ordinary pursuits of this world, To convince him of the vanity of glory she calls up in succession the ghosts of Hector, Achilles, Alexander, and Samson, who tell their tales and admonish him that valor and renown afford no protection against Death. To exemplify the vanity of beauty, Helen, Lais, Thisbe, and Lucretia are summoned, relate in like manner their respective fortunes, and remind him that *pulvis et umbra sumus.* Virgil preaches to him upon the emptiness of literary fame. Xerxes tells him that there is no avail in power, Nero that there is none in tyranny, Sardanapalus that there is none in voluptuousness. But the application which *Homo* makes of all this, is the very reverse to what his mother intended: he infers that seeing he must die at last, live how he will, the best thing he can do is to make a merry life of it, so away he goes to dance and revel, and enjoy himself: and *Terra* concludes with the mournful observation that men will still pursue their bane, unmindful of their latter end.

Another of these moralities begins with three worldlings (*tres mundani*) ringing changes upon the pleasures of profligacy, in Textor's peculiar manner, each in regular succession saying something to the same purport in different words. As thus:—

PRIMUS MUNDANUS,
Si breve tempus abit,
SECUNDUS MUNDANUS,
Si vita caduca recedit,
PRIMUS MUNDANUS,
Dies abeunt,
TERTIUS MUNDANUS,
Si cadit hora,
SECUNDUS MUNDANUS,
Perit Omne,
TERTIUS MUNDANUS,
Venit Mors.

PRIMUS MUNDANUS,
Quidnam prodesset fati meminisse futuri?
SECUNDUS MUNDANUS.
Quidnam prodesset lachrymis consumere vitam?
TERTIUS MUNDANUS.
Quidnam prodesset tantis incumbere curis?

Upon which an unpleasant personage, who has just appeared to interrupt their trialogue, observes—

"Si breve tempus abit, si vita caduca recedit,
Si cadit hora, dies abeunt, perit Omne, venit Mors,
Quidnam lethiferæ Mortis meminisse nocebit?"

It is *Mors* herself who asks the question. The three wordlings, however, behave as resolutely as Don Juan in the old drama; they tell Death that they are young, and rich, and active, and vigorous, and set all admonition at defiance. Death, or rather Mrs. Death, (for *Mors* being feminine is called *æna*, and *meretrix*, and *virago*,) takes all this patiently, and letting them go off in a dance,

calls up Human Nature, who has been asleep meantime, and asks her how she can sleep in peace while her sons are leading a life of dissipation and debauchery. Nature very coolly replies by demanding why they should not: and Death answers, because they must go to the infernal regions for so doing. Upon this Nature, who appears to be liberally inclined, asks if it is credible that any should be obliged to go there: and Death, to convince her, calls up a soul from hale to give an account of his own sufferings. A dreadful account this *Damnatus* gives; and when Nature, shocked at what she hears, inquires if he is the only one who is tormented in *Orcus*, *Damnatus* assures her that hardly one in a thousand goes to heaven, but that his fellow sufferers are in number numberless; and he specifies among them kings and popes, and senators and severe schoolmasters—a class of men whom Textor seems to have held in great and proper abhorrence—as if, like poor Thomas Tusser, he had suffered under their inhuman discipline.

Horrified at this, Nature asks advice of *Mors*, and *Mors* advises her to send a son of Thunder round the world, who should reprove the nations for their sins, and sow the seeds of virtue by his preaching. *Peregrinus* goes upon this mission, and returns to give an account of it. Nothing can be worse than the report. As for the kings of the earth, it would be dangerous, he says, to say what they were doing. The popes suffered the ship of Peter to go wherever the winds carried it. Senators were won by intercession, or corrupted by gold. Doctors spread their nets in the temples for prey, and lawyers were dumb unless their tongues were loosened by money. Had he seen the Italians?—Italy was full of dissensions, ripe for war, and defiled by its own infamous vice. The Spaniards?—They were suckled by Pride. The English?—

"Gens tacitis prægnans arcanis, ardua tentans,
Edita tartareis mihi creditur esse tenebris."

In short, the missionary concludes that he has found every where an abundant crop of vices, and that all his endeavors to produce amendment have been like ploughing the seashore. Again afflicted Nature asks advice of *Mors*, and *Mors* recommends that she should call up Justice, and send her abroad with her scourge to repress the wicked. But Justice is found to be so fast asleep that no calling can awaken her. *Mors* then advises her to summon *Veritas*—alas! unhappy *Veritas* enters complaining of pains from head to foot, and in all the intermediate parts, within and without; she is dying, and entreats that Nature will call some one to confess her. But who shall be applied to? Kings?—They will not come. Nobles?—*Veritas* is a hateful personage to them. Bishops, or mitred abbots?—They have no regard for Truth. Some saint from the desert?—Nature knows not where to find one! Poor *Veritas* therefore dies "unhouseled, disappointed, unannealed;" and forthwith three demons enter rejoicing that Human Nature is left with none to help her, and that they are kings of this world. They call in their ministers, *Caro*, and *Voluptas*, and *Vitium*, and send them to their work among mankind. These successful missionaries return, and relate how well they have sped every where; and the demons being by this time hungry, after washing in due form, and many ceremonious compliments among themselves, sit down to a repast which their ministers have provided. The bill of fare was one which Belzebub's court of aldermen might have approved. There were the brains of a fat monk—a roasted doctor of divinity who afforded great satisfaction—a king's surloin—some

broiled pope's flesh, and part of a schoolmaster; the joint is not specified, but I suppose it to have been the rump. Then came a senator's lights and a lawyer's tongue.

When they have eaten of these dainties till the distended stomach can hold no more, *Virtus* comes in, and seeing them send off the fragments to their Tartarean den, calls upon mankind to bestow some sustenance upon her, for she is tormented with hunger. The demons and their ministers insult her and drive her into banishment; they tell Nature that to-morrow the great King of Orcus will come and carry her away in chains; off they go in a dance, and Nature concludes the piece by saying that what they have threatened must happen, unless Justice shall be awakened, Virtue fed, and *Veritas* restored to life by the sacred book.

There are several other dialogues in a similar strain of fiction. The rudest and perhaps oldest specimen of this style is to be found in Pierce Ploughman, the most polished in Calderon, the most popular in John Bunyan's Holy War, and above all in his Pilgrim's Progress. It appears from the dialogues that they were not composed for the use of youth alone as a school-book, but were represented at college; and poor as they are in point of composition, the oddity of their combinations, and the wholesome honesty of their satire, were well adapted to strike young imaginations, and make an impression there which better and wiser works might have failed to leave.

A schoolmaster who had been regularly bred would have regarded such a book with scorn, and discerning at once its obvious faults, would have been incapable of perceiving anything which might compensate for them. But Guy was not educated well enough to despise a writer like old Textor. What he knew himself, he had picked up where and how he could, in byways and corners. The book was neither in any respect above his comprehension, nor below his taste; and Joseph Warton never rolled off the hexameters of Virgil or Homer, *ore rotundo*, with more delight, when expatiating with all the feelings of a scholar and a poet upon their beauties, to such pupils as Headley, and Russell, and Bowles, than Guy paraphrased these rude but striking allegories to his delighted Daniel.

The intellectual education which young Daniel received at home was as much out of the ordinary course as the book in which he studied at school. Robinson Crusoe had not yet reached Ingleton. Sanford and Merton had not been written, nor the history of Pecksey and Flapsey and the Robin's Nest, which is the prettiest fiction that ever was composed for children, and for which its excellent authoress will one day rank high among women of genius when time shall have set its seal upon desert. The only book within his reach, of all those which now come into the hands of youth, was the Pilgrim's Progress, and this he read at first without a suspicion of its allegorical import. What he did not understand was as little remembered as the sounds of the wind, or the motions of the passing clouds; but the imagery and the incidents took possession of his memory and his heart. After a while Textor became an interpreter of the immortal Tinker, and the boy acquired as much of the meaning by glimpses as was desirable, enough to render some of the personages more awful by spiritualizing them, while the tale itself remained as a reality. Oh! what blockheads are those wise persons who think it necessary that a child should comprehend every thing it reads!

IV. STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,

AT BRIDGEWATER, MASS.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT BRIDGEWATER went into operation on the 9th of September, 1840, with 28 pupils. Up to August, 1846, pupils were received for two terms, which were not necessarily successive. Since that time they have been required to remain three successive terms of fourteen weeks each. In 1855, the period of attendance at all the State Normal Schools was fixed at one year and a half. This school receives both male and female pupils.

The following communication from Prof. Marshall Conant, the present Principal, sets forth the existing regulations respecting the admission of pupils, course of study, and other particulars.

Males must be at least seventeen years of age, and females at least sixteen.

Each candidate for membership is required to present a certificate of good MORAL CHARACTER, from some responsible person; and must pass a satisfactory examination in the common branches, viz.,—Reading, Spelling, Defining, Arithmetic, Writing, Grammar and Geography.

There is also required of the candidate a pledge to remain in the institution three consecutive terms, and faithfully to observe all its rules and regulations. If, however, the candidate is found to be qualified to enter advanced classes, his connection with the institution may be for a less time; but not less than one year.

The school year is divided into two terms: one beginning on the third Wednesday of March, and continuing 19 weeks; the other on the third Wednesday of September, and continuing 21 weeks. Annual session of the school, 40 weeks.

Pupils are received at the commencement of each term.

All candidates for admission are required to present themselves at the school room at 9 o'clock, A. M., of the *first day* of the term; for only in *very special* cases is any one *entitled* to an examination for admission *after* that day.

Tuition is gratuitous to those who design to become Teachers in the Public Schools of the State. To those from *other* States, who do not become Teachers in *this*, a fee of $10 per term is charged for tuition; and the same also to those who enter the institution for the purpose of qualifying themselves to teach in Private Schools. A like amount for tuition is expected to be paid by those who fail to fulfill an expressed design to teach in the Public Schools of the State.

The State appropriates $1000 a year for each of the Normal Schools, to aid those of its own students who find it difficult to meet the expense of attending one of those institutions without assistance. This aid is not granted during the first thirteen weeks of the course. Afterward, applicants for aid may expect to receive it as follows: those who reside not over twenty miles from the school, 50 cts. per week; those residing between 20 and 30 miles, $1; and those over 30 miles, $1,50 per week. If, however, the number of applicants in any term should be greater than to allow of these rates of distribution from the regular appropriation for the term, that amount will be distributed in the *proportion* of these rates.

Board is usually $2,50 per week; exclusive of fuel and lights. And $1,50 is required of every student, at the middle of each term, to meet incidental expenses.

It is also expected that every student will furnish himself with a copy of Lippincott's Gazetteer, and with one or two other smaller works; the whole expense of which may amount to $7,00. All other text-books are furnished to the students free of charge.

The following table exhibits the course of studies pursued in the school, during the required time of connection with it, viz., one year and a half.

The pupils are divided into three classes; the Junior, Middle, and Senior.

The studies for the First Term, or Junior Class, stand upon the left of the table, next to the column of Hours, &c.; those for the Second Term, or Middle Class, occupy the next column to the right; those for the Third Term, or Senior Class, are placed upon the extreme right.

The table shows at a glance what are the particular studies for any part of the course, together with the days and hours of recitation.

The arrangements of the school are such that, besides pursuing this course of studies, the pupils are employed at times in giving instruction. This affords the principal and his assistants the opportunity of rendering the pupils more efficient aid in the application of principles, and the illustration of methods.

A course of lectures on Physical Geography is annually given in the school, in the month of December, by Prof Guyot; also a course on Chemistry, by some other professor.

TABLE.—Plan of Study and Instruction in the State Normal School, at Bridgewater, Mass.

MORNING.

Hours.	Juniors.	Mid. Class.	Seniors.
	MONDAY AND FRIDAY.		
9 to 9 1-4	Devotional Exercises.		
9 1-4 to 10-10	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	American History.
10 1-4 to 11	1st Latin.	2d Latin.	3d Latin.
11 1-4 to 12	Algebra.	Algebra.	Polit. Class Book or Const. U S
	TUESDAY AND THURSDAY.		
9 to 9 1-4	Devotional Exercises.		
9 1-4 to 10 1-2	Geometry.	Nat. Philos.	Trigonometry and Optics.
10 3-4 to 12	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	Astronomy.
	WEDNESDAY.		
8 1-2 to 8 3-4	Devotional Exercises.		
8 3-4 to 9 1-2	Physiology.	Logic.	Rhetoric.
9-35 to 10-35	Compositions		
10-45 to 12	Music.		
	SATURDAY.		
8 1-2 to 8 3-4	Devotional Exercises.		
8 3-4 to 9 1-2	Physiology.	Logic.	Rhetoric.
9-35 to 10-35	Algebra.	Algebra.	Geology and Natural History.
10-45 to 11-40	Grammar.	Grammar.	Grammar.
11-45 to 12	Moral Philosophy and Duties.		

AFTERNOON.

Hours.	Juniors.	Mid. Class.	Seniors.
2* to 2-10	Writing and Spelling every P. M.		
	MONDAY AND THURSDAY.		
2-10 to 3	Reading.	Reading.	Book Keeping.
3-5 to 3 3-4	Grammar.	Grammar.	Grammar.
4 to 4 3-4	Geography.	Geography.	Geography or Indust. Drawing.
	TUESDAY AND FRIDAY.		
2-10 to 3	Reading.	Reading.	Reading.
3-5 to 3 3-4	Ment. Arith.	Eng. Lan.	Theory of Teach. & Sch. Laws.
4 to 4 3-4	Geography.	Geography.	Surveying [illegible] nd. Drawing.
4 3-4 to 5	General Exercises every P. M.		

There have been 1035 pupils, viz., 424 males and 611 females, connected with the school since its opening; of which number, 706 have completed the course of study.

* These are the hours for the Summer Term, those for the Winter Term are a half hour earlier.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

AT

BRIDGEWATER.

THE Normal School at Bridgewater, as well as that at Westfield, receives both male and female pupils. The regulations respecting the admission of pupils, course of study, number and length of each session, are set forth in the Regulations of the Board. The following communications from Mr. N. Tillinghast, who has been the Principal of this Institution from its first establishment, and has now the longest experience of any Normal School teacher in this country, gives the general results of his experience, and the experience of this Institution in the work of educating teachers.

"The main facts about this school you are already acquainted with. It went into operation September 9th, 1840, with 28 pupils. There have entered the school in all, 657 pupils; 365 females, 292 males. Up to August, 1846, pupils were received for two terms, which were not necessarily successive. Since that time they have been required to remain three successive terms, of 14 weeks each. The average number at present is between 60 and 70. The whole number of pupils since August, 1846, is 252; of these, 32, from various causes, have left the school after one or two terms. Of the 220, two have not been, and apparently, do not intend to be, teachers.

It seems to me that these schools are doing good. My own scholars have, I think, succeeded as well as I could reasonably expect. Many have failed; indeed many from whom I looked for success; others have continued to keep schools, but doing no better, for aught that I know, than they would have done without staying a year here; but still I can not feel disappointed.

There are, it seems to me, grave defects in the constitution of my school. Four years would, in my judgment, be profitably given to the subjects which we touch on in one. If pupils must be *taught* subjects in these schools, as I think they must for a time under the best organization, the course ought to extend over three years at least. I think it would be a better plan than the present, to receive pupils for, say twenty-one weeks, and to give that time to reading, spelling, arithmetic, and geography; and in another twenty-one weeks, to take up reading, spelling, physiology, grammar; so that only a few studies should be in the school at a time, and teachers might go for a term without interfering with their teaching school. The great evil now, in my school, is the attempt to take up so many studies, most persons inverting the truth, and supposing the amount acquired the important thing, and the *study* unimportant. But I should be content if I could bring pupils into such a state of desire that they would pursue truth, and into such a state of knowledge that they could recognize her when overtaken. A very few studies, and long dwelling on them—this is my theory. I have no especial belief in teaching others *methods* of teaching: I do not mean, that the subject should be entirely passed by; but that pupils should not be *trained* into, or directed into particular processes; it seems to me that each well-instructed mind will arrive at a method of imparting, better for *it* than any other method. I therefore have tried to bring my pupils to get at results for themselves, and to show them how they may feel confident of the truth of their results. I have *sought* criticism from my scholars on all my methods, processes, and results; aimed to have them, kindly of course, but freely criticise each other; and they are encouraged to ask questions, and propose doubts. I call on members of the classes to hear recitations, and on the others to make remarks, thus approving and disapproving one another; they are called upon to make

up general exercises, and to deliver them to their classes, sometimes on subjects and in styles fitted to those whom they address; sometimes they are bid to imagine themselves speaking to children. I find I am getting more into details than I intend, or you wish. My idea of a Normal School is, that it should have a term of four years; that those studies should be pursued that will lay a *foundation* on which to build an education. I mean, for example, that algebra should be *thoroughly* studied as the foundation for arithmetic; that geometry and trigonometry should be studied, by which, with algebra, to study natural philosophy, &c.; the number of studies should be comparatively small, but much time given to them. I, of course, do not intend to write a list of studies, and what I have said above is only for illustration: the teacher should be so trained as to be *above* his text books. Whatever has been done in teaching in all countries, different methods, the thoughts of the best minds on the *science* and the *art* of instruction, should be laid before the neophyte teachers. In a proper Normal School there should be departments, and the ablest men put over them, each in his own department. Who knows more than one branch *well?*

I send herewith a catalogue of my school, which will give you some idea of its osteology; what of life these bones have, others must judge. But when shall the whole vision of the Prophet be fulfilled in regard to the teachers of the land,—"And the breath came into them, and they *lived* and stood upon their feet, (not on those of any author) an exceeding great army."

God prosper the work, and may your exertions in the cause be gratefully remembered."

The Visitors of the Bridgewater Normal School, in their Report to the Board, in December, 1850, present the following statement:—

That at the first term of the normal year, seventeen pupils entered; and during that term the whole number was fifty-nine. At the second term, thirty-one entered; during which term the whole number was seventy-two. At the third term, ending November 12, twenty-five entered; and the whole number during that term was seventy-nine. The whole number received during the year was seventy-three. Fifteen graduated at the end of the year. Two of the graduating class left the school on account of ill health.

The young men of the graduating class are all engaged for the winter schools. Of the young ladies, some are teaching now, and all intend to take schools as they have opportunity.

The visitors have repeated their attendance upon the school, at different times during the year, with the highest satisfaction. They have witnessed, with great pleasure, the enlightened zeal and earnestness with which the principal and his assistants have done their work, and bear testimony to the evident thoroughness with which the training of the pupils has been conducted. They regard this school as an honor to the state, and as doing a most important service in regard to the great cause of education."

ADDRESS

AT THE

DEDICATION OF THE BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE,

BY WILLIAM G. BATES,

August 19th, 1846.

Gentlemen of the Board of Education, Teachers, and Friends:

THE sagacious enactment of the Legislature of 1845, and the enlightened liberality of philanthropic individuals, placed at the disposal of the Board of Education the means of erecting two edifices for the accommodation of the State Normal Schools. One of those edifices is now completed; and this day it is to be set apart to the uses for which it was designed. The occasion has been deemed one of sufficient importance to justify a public and joyful commemoration; and, at the request of the other members of the Board, and by their appointment, I appear before you, to bear a part in the performances of the day. We have assembled, then, to dedicate a school-house! The executive authority of this ancient Commonwealth, the Board of Education, the wise and the learned from the different sections of the State, and the friends of progressive improvement in the cause of education, without regard to conventional lines or state boundaries, have convened to rejoice in the dedication of a building which henceforth is to be appropriated to the education of those who are to instruct the children of the State in the rudiments of learning.

"Is not this," methinks I hear an objector exclaim, "a trivial matter? Are there not other and more appropriate occasions of rejoicing? Are there not bright days in our national calendar, events in our history, to fire the soul of song, and to swell the anthem of joy? Have you no voice of praise for that recent consummation which has extended our institutions, in peaceful perpetuity, to the distant shores of the Pacific? Give over, then, this inapposite attempt to dignify so unimportant an event as that which has called us together this day."

Every nation has its own, its peculiar days of rejoicing. The birth of a prince, the accession of a king, the yielding up of a charter, the overthrow of a dynasty, have swelled the hearts of many an oppressed and suffering people. Our own country has even nobler themes than these. But, if it be the object of social life to increase our pleasures here; if the cultivation of our moral powers is to minister to our enjoyments hereafter; if the aim of political institutions is to secure to a people the inalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, there can be no more heart-cheering vision than to behold a rich and powerful State solemnly pledging its wealth and its energies to the promotion of a cause upon which all these interests depend. Indeed, of all the events in our historic annals of which orators have discoursed and poets have sung, there is not one, worthy of a lasting commemoration, which is not intimately connected with the cause which has convened us to-day. Take, for example, that ever-memorable event, which stands out in our history as the brightest and the noblest, since the great triumph of Columbus, and ask yourselves why we celebrate the anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims. Is it that a few adventurers succeeded in establishing a colony which has been ripened, by subsequent wisdom, into this great empire? that, driven by persecution from their native land, they fled to the solitude of a new continent, and converted a refuge from present distress into an asylum for the oppressed of every clime? The feelings which animated them were nobler than these, and their plans more enduring. They came hither to found a State! All their desires and their energies tended to this one object. Danger could not appal, suffering could not deter them from its pursuit. When they left the harbor of Delft-haven, and while their frail bark staggered under the fearful billows, their breasts were laboring for the development of those great principles of government which were destined to win for them the gratitude of a world. When they landed upon the rock of Plymouth, they stood upon the territory of a civ-

ilized state; and the sun which woke the first morning of their occupancy, shone upon a regularly organized government.

Nor, amid the gloom which enshrouded them, and the dangers which threatened to ingulf their infant colony, did they falter in the designs which had their birth in suffering. Having elicited the great principle of the capability of man for the duties of self-government, they set forth, at once, to provide the means of demonstrating that capability; and, in the midst of a mighty struggle for the very existence of their colony, they provided by enactment, within the first quarter of a century of its existence, for the future education of its children.

The first provision for public instruction in the colony of Massachusetts Bay, was passed in the year 1642. Five years after, in 1647, another act was passed, securing, still more effectually, the education of the young; but in the year 1692, just two centuries after the discovery of this continent, the means of diffusing the light of learning and religion, not only throughout that continent, but throughout the world, were provided in the enactments of the Pilgrim Fathers.* Other patriots and other sages, before them, had labored earnestly for the dissemination of intelligence—and, in the early ages, some of them had fallen martyrs to their zeal in this noblest cause—but it was reserved for "the Fathers" to ingraft that great principle on the laws of a country, as a maxim of government, that *all the people of a State should be educated by the State.*

This provision is entitled "An Act for the settlement and support of ministers and schoolmasters." "The Fathers" evidently considered Learning to be the handmaid of Religion, and while, in the law, they provided for the former, by making it the duty of the magistracy to supply any want of the stated means of grace by the appointment of a suitable pastor at the expense of the neglectful town, they secured the promotion of learning by heavy penalties for each case of neglect.

But then, as now, there were enlightened men whose zeal and intelligence were in advance of their age. The act of 1701,† after reciting the former act, proceeds as follows: "The observance of which wholesome and necessary law is shamefully neglected by divers towns, and the penalty thereof not required, tending greatly to the nourishment of ignorance and irreligion, whereof grievous complaint is made." It then provides for the redress of these evils, and enacts that the penalties for future neglect shall be doubled; that every grammar-master shall be approved by the minister of the town and the ministers of two adjoining towns, or any two of them; that no minister of any town shall perform such services, as a teacher, as to discharge the town from the performance of its duties under the act; and that justices of the peace, and all grand-jurors, shall diligently inquire and true presentment make of all breaches and neglect of the same, that due prosecution may be made against the offenders.

Nor were they more zealous in providing the means of instruction for the rising generation, than they were solicitous as to the characters of the teachers; and their wisdom, in this respect, far transcends the legislation of modern days. We provide, in reference to our security in the qualification of teachers, that they shall be examined by a competent board of judges, and, if not found to be qualified, why, then, that their employers shall be under no obligation to pay them for their services. Under the operation of this law, a grossly incompetent teacher, who has been rejected for the want of proper moral or literary qualifications, may form the minds and morals of our children, according to his own standard of character; and yet, if his employers are so inclined, he may receive a reward for his work of evil. But even this safeguard applies only to the public schools. In our academies, and in the numerous private schools with which, unfortunately, our country abounds, there is no legal check upon the injury which a bad man may work upon the minds and hearts of those who, by misjudging parents, may be committed to his charge. No matter how much he may lack in intelligence or in morals; no matter how positively depraved he may be in his sentiments or in his conduct; he is, nevertheless, a teacher under the law, or rather in spite of the law, and may exert a most deleterious influence upon the minds of those whose education should be under its especial guardianship.

Not such were the views of those wise men who have transmitted to us that

* Province Laws, c. XIII. p. 245. † Province Laws, c. LXXXII. p. 371.

glorious system, under the operation of which the hitherto discordant elements of government have moved on in unbroken harmony. They considered the teacher as the former of the man; and that, to secure a virtuous and an intelligent community, it was necessary, not only to provide the means of good instruction, but to guard against the influences of bad. Their opinions on this subject were fully and forcibly expressed in the act of 1712, which is known as the "Reformation Act."* Its preamble recites, that, "forasmuch as the well educating and instructing of children and youth, in families and schools, are a necessary means to propagate religion and good manners, and the conversation and example of heads of families and schools having great influence on those under their care and government, to an imitation thereof," no person "shall presume to set up or keep a school," without the allowance and approbation of the proper authority; and, the law continues, if any person "shall be so hardy" as to offend against its provisions, he shall forfeit a heavy penalty, to be inflicted as long as his school shall continue, and as often as he may be prosecuted therefor.

Such were the views and feelings of the Pilgrims. Such were the objects at which they aimed, and the means by which those objects were sought to be accomplished. And when we consider the wise adaptation of the means to the end, when we contemplate the sure and rapid progress which has marked our course as a nation, the more sure, and the more rapid, accordingly as we have adhered to and maintained those principles which they established—who shall say that the first vision of a free and an independent republic did not break upon their sight, while they were tossing upon the ocean in the cabin of the May Flower?

If we are correct in the opinion which has been incidentally expressed, and which has obtained a general credence throughout the world, that the security of our free institutions depends upon the enactment of the provisions for the universal education of the people, at the expense of the State, it surely cannot be inappropriate to the present occasion, nor can the occasion itself be trifling and unimportant, which leads us to consider the manner in which that provision affects the people in relation to our government. If the consideration subserves no other purpose than to renew our recollections of those whose stout hands and whose stouter hearts provided for us this goodly land, it is, at least, but a fitting tribute paid at the call of gratitude. But the consideration may produce a more useful result; and, as Old Mortality, among the tombs of the Covenanters, "considered himself as fulfilling a sacred duty, while renewing to the eyes of posterity the decaying emblems of the zeal and sufferings of their forefathers, and thereby trimming, as it were, the beacon-light which was to warn future generations to defend their religion even unto blood," so we, in the contemplation of this noblest of the monuments of the Pilgrims, may be led to emulate them in their zeal, to catch the fire of their devotion, and to resolve to hand down to future ages this splendid memorial of their undying fame.

The country from which the Pilgrims fled is a monarchy. In it the three essential modifications of government are arranged with so nice an adaptation to the liberty of the subject, as to make the British constitution the wonder of the world. There, is the freedom of the press! There, is the trial by jury! There, every man's property is secured to him under the provisions of the law, and every man's house is his castle. There, the path to wealth is open to every traveler, and honors and rewards are ready to be showered upon the successful and the deserving. How sedulously they labor to promote their national prosperity! And, to secure that object, how carefully they watch over the welfare of those who may become their monarchs! The birth of a royal infant is announced as a subject of national congratulation, and the announcement is hailed with a response of national enthusiasm. The most experienced and celebrated physicians watch over even its healthful hours, and ladies of rank and fortune are proud to be its nurses. Learning waits upon and calls forth the development of its intellect, and science strengthens its powers by well-adapted and judicious exercise. Learned treatises and controversial publications discuss the means for the cultivation of all its faculties, and the whole nation watches for its progress with more than a parental anxiety. And why? Because this infant may be a

* Province Laws, c. CV. p. 398.

component part of their own government; and they know how much the happiness and welfare of a people depend upon the virtue and intelligence of their rulers.

Nor is their zeal for the blessings of a good government expended in their efforts for the education of the executive power only. Their judicial and their legislative departments are equally the objects of their fostering care. Of their judiciary, it is sufficient to remark, that the exorbitant salaries of the office, and the pension which follows its resignation, have ever called the highest talent from the bar to the bench, and made the judges of England, from the earliest ages, the true expounders of the law and the pure ministers of justice.

Of the Legislative branch, the House of Lords is composed principally of those who derive, from a long line of ancestry, the office of hereditary rulers of the realm. And, to guard against the deteriorations which inevitably follow the accident of birth, the most distinguished citizens of the nation are promoted to the peerage, to superadd to the distinctions of rank the dignity of intelligence.

The remaining branch of the Legislature consists of that body of men which is designed to represent the great interests of the people. But so guarded is the election of the members of the House of Commons by the controlling powers of the crown and the peers, and the dictates of a cautious and wary policy, that the people of England depend, for their immunities, rather upon the opinion of the higher estates of the realm, than upon the influence of their own voice in the national councils.

I refer to these principles of British legislation with no view to the consideration of their expediency and wisdom. I advert to them only to show with what solicitude they endeavor to guard against the irruptions of ignorance, and with what feelings they regard educational training, even in a monarchical government.

If such is the policy of England, what should be that of the United States! If such is the practice of a monarchy, what should be that of a republic! If such are the feelings of a people where, although the rights of man are secured, yet his interests are subordinate to the rights of property, what should be the feelings of that people whose system of government recognizes man as the very organ of its action, and his interests as the choicest objects of its care!

When our fathers fled from religious persecution, to seek the "pure shrine" of faith, they sought also the blessings of civil liberty. They rejected the long-cherished doctrine of usurped agency, and gave back to man his heaven-born birthright. They repudiated the cumbrous machinery of a system which, while it protected his rights, pressed like an incubus upon his interests, and they relied upon a scheme of self-government founded upon his intelligence and virtue. And, truly, it was the sublimest conception which ever broke upon the mind of a patriotic statesman. Conceive, if you can, of an intelligent people, "nursed up from brighter influences, with souls enlarged to the dimensions of spacious art and high knowledge," cognizant of their rights, governed by their duties, demanding nothing wrong, yielding ever to the right, just in all the relations of private life, and acting upon these principles in all their foreign intercourse; and where is the Utopia which is the abode of a more well-imagined happiness!

And yet, bright as the conception is, it is the home designed for us by our heroic fathers. It is no Oceana, it is no Utopia. The realization of this plan is in our own power; and our approach to it will be proportionate to the ardor of our zeal and the warmth of our devotion.

Have we been true to our obligations in the performance of the duties which have been assigned to us to perform? Have we imitated even the zeal and the wisdom of a monarchy?

Who are our rulers? Are they those who claim a descent from a long line of illustrious ancestors? Are they those who by their wealth clothe themselves with the right to rule? Or are they those who purchase the offices of the State as in the most venal of the days of the Roman State?

Who are the persons, that, in this country, are to stand in the place of the monarch? Every native-born male child in the Union is the heir-apparent to the throne of this great empire. Who are to compose our House of Lords! Every citizen of the age of thirty years, who shall have resided within the United States for the space of nine years, is eligible to that exalted station.

Who are to constitute that popular branch, which in England is denominated the House of Commons? The age of twenty-five years, seven of which shall have been passed within the limits of the Union, is a legal qualification for the people's representative. These are the persons who, together with the judicial department, form the three constituent parts of the most complex government upon earth. These are the persons to whom are intrusted those powers which are guarded with so much care by the educational policy of a monarchy.

And now, let us ask if we rival the wisdom of this policy? Are the youth, the future presidents, and senators, and representatives of this country, thus carefully instructed in a knowledge of those duties which they will and must be called upon to perform? Are they trained, in their early years, according to the great laws of health, so as to produce "a sound mind in a sound body?" Do the wise and the learned watch over and guide their intellectual progress, and imbue their impressible minds with the love of virtue? Or are they not, rather, suffered "to come up," like neglected plants, ignorant of the relations of civil life, and unknowing of those important trusts which are to be committed to them? Who can well estimate the vast responsibilities which rest upon the conduct of these rulers! How fraught may be their conduct with good; how pregnant with evil! Their acts may destroy the balance of this well-adjusted confederacy, and array brother against brother in the strife of blood. Their conduct may embroil nation with nation, and convert our smiling fields into the Golgothas of battle. Their decision may change the industrial character of the whole people, and turn thrift into idleness, and plenteousness into famine. Their examples may exalt vice, debase virtue, and give respectability and character even unto crime. And, on the other hand, powerful to good, and strong against evil, they can unseal the hidden springs of their country's prosperity, and read the nation's gratitude in the nation's eyes.

But let us advance more directly to what is suggested by the occasion, and contemplate this subject in its relation to our own State. Whatever may be the fate of the government of which it forms a component part, and whatever may be our feelings or our duties toward it, yet, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, our first civil obligations were assumed, and in its cause shall our latest efforts be made.

Like that of other States, the government of Massachusetts consists of three departments. The Legislative, consisting of our Senate and House of Representatives, enact those laws which are intended to secure our rights and promote our welfare. The judicial department declares what those laws are, and settles the conflicting rights of individuals under them. The Executive power carries into execution the will of the people, as thus expressed and declared. We have adopted, as a part of its system, the doctrine of universal suffrage; and practically, the avenues to office, as well the highest as the lowest, are open to every citizen. Such is the theory of the government of Massachusetts. Such is that system of laws and institutions, by which we prosper, and under which we live.

No well-informed person will deny, not merely how important, but how indispensable is a government of laws to the prosperity of a people. But still, there are few who are aware of the extent of its influence, through all the relations and circumstances of life. Indeed, there are thousands whose whole knowledge of its effects is derived from the experience of others. They are not impleaded themselves, nor do they implead their fellows. They are not charged with crime, and, of course, feel no alarm at its undirected terrors. They know that it is around them, with its invisible shield, and they inquire not whence it comes, or whither it goes. They regard it as they do the sun that warms, and the air which surrounds them. They know that the sun will shine, and that the atmosphere will breathe around them the elements of life; and they seem to consider that man, in his imperfect institutions, is to rival the wisdom and the beneficence of the Creator. When they walk abroad, they know that the arm of the law is over them, to protect them from peril. They visit, without fear, the most remote and sequestered scenes; for they feel that it will restrain the hand of violence, and blunt the steel of the assassin. They repose in their habitations during the long hours of night; for the law makes their house their castle, and protects it, as well against secret mischief as open aggression. They consider, in short, that their property is protected by the nation's strength, and that

millions of bayonets are the sure guaranties for the preservation of their liberties.

There are, however, moral influences, resulting from the operations of law, which are still more striking. How does it pervade the very spirit of society, and control the whole conduct of men in their daily intercourse! How does it strengthen the sentiment of justice in their hearts, and induce them to do right, almost without volition! How it extends even to the domestic relations—restrains the excess of parental authority, and deepens the feelings of filial obedience! How it binds the husband to the wife, in the most endearing relation, and renders more indissoluble those holy ties which are the unspeakable charm of social existence! And when, at last, they feel that they are about to depart from those who are to live after them, and to leave them to live on, without their natural protection, with what confidence do they turn from the trusts of interested men to the laws and institutions of their country!

And yet, these laws and institutions, with all the momentous interests which grow up and flourish under them, depend for their existence upon these three co-ordinate departments of the government. They sprang forth, at first, full-armed in wisdom, like Minerva from the brain of power, but they cannot, like her, rely upon a native-born immortality. They are the mere creations of legislative will, and the power which made them can again destroy. Look at the affluence which successful acquisition has concentrated in this, the richest of the States. It is held only by a legal tenure. The law can tax it; the law can appropriate it; and what shall protect it from the inroads of fraud, and the aggressions of violence, if the law were to withhold its protecting arm? Our houses and our lands we hold, as we imagine, by the securest of all tenures; but a single act of the Legislature of the State may destroy the muniments of our title, and our respective portions of "the great globe itself" may take to themselves the light wings of the morning.

It may, perhaps, be conceded that our rulers should be both virtuous and intelligent, and yet that the same necessity does not exist for a virtuous and intelligent constituency. This supposition assumes that the principles of legislation are so complex and intricate, that the people are to choose others to do for them those governmental acts of which they cannot perceive the wisdom. Such a doctrine is upheld in other governments, in the other hemisphere; but it is repudiated by the very principles of republicanism. As well might the legislative power be delegated in perpetuity, as well might the offices of our rulers depend upon the accident of birth, as that the results of their authority should rest upon any other foundation than the consent and the approval of the people governed. We employ a physician, indeed, to do for us what we are presumed to be unable to do for ourselves, and we submit ourselves, unarguing, to his guidance. "What he wills, unargued, we obey." But in matters of legislation, however complicated, we are presumed to be the judges. We vote for a public officer because we know his opinions, and our vote, therefore, should be but the true expression of our own; and we might, in ignorance of the healing art, as properly administer remedies to a diseased patient, as, in ignorance of political information, thrust our nostrums into the body politic.

And who that has watched our legislative history does not know that the acts of our rulers are but the embodiment of the popular will? Who does not know that no legislation can be permanent or useful which does not rest upon the sentiment of an approving people? The act may be wise in its inception and beneficent in its operation; but it is the public sentiment alone which can give it vitality; and unless the public mind can be made to perceive and approve its wisdom, it will slumber, as though it were useless, until another law shall abrogate its provisions.

But, if it were granted that ignorant and vicious men will choose wise and virtuous rulers; that those who cannot perceive the wisdom of wise laws will yet acquiesce in their permanency; in short, that a system of government founded upon the virtue and intelligence of the people, and upheld by these conservative principles alone, has within itself that miraculous efficacy of winning to it the support of ignorance and vice—still, let me ask whether, in the choice of wise and virtuous rulers, we fulfill to the government all the duties of good citizens?

Let any one, who is inclined to give an affirmative answer, go into our courts

of justice, and see how those rights of life, liberty, and property, which the constitution upholds, depend as much upon their administration as upon the laws themselves! How complicated are the subjects which are presented at a judicial trial! How strangely intermingled are questions of fact with the principles of law! How subtle and astute are the arguments of those who often make the worse appear the better reason! How profoundly logical are the reasonings of the judge!

And then, too, how harassing are often the questions of evidence! The treacherous memory, the mistaken apprehensions, the corrupt misstatements of witnesses, leave the truth in doubt. How adroitly the opposing counsel labor through a long and searching examination to unravel the web of error and destroy the equipoise of a suspended judgment! Now all these nice questions of fact, these applications of law, these arguments of counsel, these reasonings of the court, and this weighing in the nicest of scales the conflicting evidence, are to be settled and passed upon by a jury of twelve men, approved by the people and coming from among the people! How momentous is often the result of their opinions! Property, liberty, and life itself, hang upon their verdicts; and yet how often is it that their verdict is wrong! And is it not necessary that jurors should be intelligent? Go to the litigant, who watches the progress of his cause with an intensity of interest, and upon whose heart every circumstance of trial tells, like the puncture of a nerve, and ask him if his rights are safe in the hands of an ignorant jury.

Recently, in one of the counties of our own Commonwealth, an incompetent juryman was observed to slumber during the progress of an important trial. The fact was communicated by a party to his counsel. "Let him sleep," was the reply; "his dreams will be as intelligent as his waking thoughts." "I believe it," said the party, as he sat down, heartsick, in his seat; and the juror slumbered till his laborious breathing attracted the attention of the judges.

It is not, however, the unjust loss of property, of liberty, or even of life itself, which alone should prompt us to labor for the promotion of increased intelligence among those who may act upon our juries. Every wrong adjudication has a more deleterious effect than the mere loss of either of these rights, however valuable they may be to their possessor. It weakens the confidence of man in the honesty of his peers; it jeopards that feeling of security which is essential to individual happiness; it impairs the strength of our reliance upon that great conservative feature of a representative government; and, by forcing upon the mind the remembrance of a wrong endured, it weakens our desire to give permanency to those institutions which have partially failed to answer the end of their creation.

But still, when the suffering litigant, under the influence of these feelings, calls for increased intelligence and virtue in the jury-box, let him reflect, that however embarrassing, and arduous, and important are the duties of a juror, they are not more important, and require no more consideration, than those political duties which are performed sometimes, almost without even a thought of duty.

There are other modes in which education ministers to the prosperity and the security of the institutions of the State, to some of which I can only refer, and to others I cannot even allude.

The more than three hundred flourishing towns and cities in our Commonwealth have municipal duties, which education alone can enable them to perform. The annual election of their municipal officers, the construction and repair of roads and bridges, the sanitary regulations for the preservation of the public health, the adoption of precautionary measures against the commission of crime, the preventives against, the remedy for, and the support of honest poverty, the regulations for the security of individual property, the appropriations for beneficent municipal objects, the applications of money for those institutions of learning, the sustenance of which the law has wisely thrown upon them, and the appointment of persons to watch over these nurseries of virtue and knowledge—all these objects require the exercise of those higher qualities, both of the mind and heart, without which we are neither faithful to our trusts, just to ourselves, nor mindful of our posterity.

Having thus far considered the necessity of popular education in a popular government, and, to some extent, the manner in which it affects the operation

of this vast, wise, and complex system, let me ask of you whether the people are equal to the responsibilities which have been thrown upon them by the framers of our government. I do not now refer to that great State, in one of the congressional districts of which there is not a single newspaper, because its inhabitants cannot read! nor to those constituent parts of our great confederacy, where candidates for office advocate their own claims by oral addresses, because the ear is the only organ of communication between them and their constituents! nor to those other sections of our Union, where vice and ignorance reign triumphant over the institutions of the ballot, and "fools rush in where angels fear to tread;" but here, in our own venerated State, and in reference to our own beloved Massachusetts, I ask of you, her citizens, if the people have arrived at that consummation in the education of the young, when efforts for improvement may safely cease. There is not, I trust, in all the mass of people within her borders, a single individual who will give an affirmative answer. They know that the offices and interests of our towns have again and again depended upon a *single vote!* They know that more than once the vote of a single individual has displaced or elevated the very highest of our officers! They know, too, that often the character of the legislation of our Commonwealth has depended upon the votes of those who never read, who never heard read, I might almost say, who never heard *of*, the people's constitution!

Thus feeling, thus believing, there is not a man of them who would consent to stay the march of improvement; and, if not for the sake of education itself, if not for the sake of his children and of the people, yet for the sake of those institutions which are perhaps our *too* constant boast, he will look with eager desire for that period when the will of the people shall be directed by intelligence and virtue.

The question then arises, how are these hopes to be realized? How is this people to be educated? How is every man, who assumes the duties of the citizen, to be fitted for the performance of them?

Will you point me to the family relation, and affirm that those who are the creators of the body are also to be the educators of the mind and heart? It is true that around the knees of the mother many a youth is yet to receive what so many illustrious citizens have already received—those invaluable precepts which alone can form the man. It is true that from the lips of many a father the child is to be inspired with those holy impulses which are to quicken his march along the path of virtue. But not all parents are sufficiently capable, not all have the requisite opportunity, for the performance of this great duty. And besides, how true is the doctrine which has received the approbation of the great orator of the age, that all the children of a republic should be educated in the people's schools!

Will you point me to our colleges and our university? Alas! how few of the children of our State receive the enlightenment of their instruction! Founded by the wisdom of the Pilgrims, and fostered by their children, they are ever to be cherished by succeeding generations. But, though they may gild the eminences of society, they can never irradiate the sequestered vales of life. They may stand, indeed, as the great Bethesdas of healing, but there is a great multitude of folk, halt, blind, and withered, who can never rejoice in the healing of their waters.

Will you refer me to those academic institutions which shine as lesser lights in our literary horizon? They have exercised, and are destined still to exercise, an important office in the dissemination of virtue and sound learning; but they can never rival in their usefulness the seminaries of the people. And besides, they are not *free schools*. They have been, and must still be, supported by the price paid for labor; and however useful they may be as places of preparation for the higher seminaries of learning, or for the acquisition of an elegant or useful education by a large class of our citizens, they can never form a link in that vast chain of intercommunication which is to give an enkindling impulse to every citizen in the land.

There are in the State more than 200,000 children, between the ages of 4 and 16 years. Of these, about 500 are supposed to be students of our colleges and university, and about 12 000 to be members of the various academical institu-

tions. There are, then, about 190,000 children, who, if educated at all, are to be educated in our Common Schools.

And in view of the momentous interests which rest upon these institutions of the State, the question naturally occurs to us, Are they adequate to the fulfillment of the designs of those who created, and of those who fostered, and who still foster them? No one expects an affirmative answer. Every one admits that there, in the school-room, our children are to be imbued with the knowledge and with the love of duty; that there it is that their powers are to be trained, their views expanded, and their hearts improved; but no one believes that those by whom all these results are to be accomplished are competent to the task. I might confidently appeal to the experience of those who, either long ago or at a later period, have left the Common Schools, as to the competency of their teachers. I might confidently refer to the very teachers themselves. I might refer also to the opinions of those parents whose children are now fitting themselves for the field of usefulness, or preparing for that harvest of evil which is sure to follow the years of neglected childhood. But many a parent has never seen the teacher of his child; and in this respect they rival the apathy of those ignorant citizens whose votes give authority to the voice which speaks from the ballot. Recently, a little girl objected to join the model school connected with one of our State Normal institutions. "Why," said her father, "you will receive the instruction of your regular teachers, assisted by those Normal pupils, who will instruct you, under the inspection and direction of the Normal teacher himself." "I know that," she rejoined, "but I don't want to go there to be practiced upon!" How long have ignorance and immorality "practiced upon" the forming minds of childhood! and while, with the keenness of avarice, we have guarded the subordinate interests of property, to what rash hands have we committed the inappreciable interests of the mind and heart!

Assuming the necessity, or even the desirableness of elevating the standard of Common-School education, and adding to the qualifications of those teachers in whom is invested a charge of such vast responsibility, let us *refer to* the modes which have been proposed for the accomplishment of these objects.

It has been thought advisable that the means for the education of teachers should be provided in our colleges and universities. But no one supposes that teachers can be educated there without some change, both in the expenses and in the mode of teaching. A change in one particular alone would be productive of no beneficial result. If, for instance, the expenses should be diminished, and if, indeed, those persons who propose to devote themselves to the business of teaching were to be supported wholly at public expense, there would still remain the objection, that the course of studies pursued at these institutions, with a view to the learned professions, is not the one best adapted for the creation of a sympathy with the mind of a child; and, on the other hand, if the required changes were made in the course of instruction, there are few districts which would feel themselves able to employ a teacher so expensively educated.

Suppose both these objections to be anticipated by a diminution of the expense, and the creation of a department for the education of teachers. That department would then be subordinate to the other departments of the college, or those departments to the former; and, in either case, disunion of feeling and collision of interests would impair the usefulness of both. But, apart from this effect, the creation of such a department for the purposes indicated, or, to obviate still further the objection, the appropriation to them of all the departments of the college, would be, in one case, to ingraft a Normal School upon the institution of a college, and, in the other, to convert the college itself into a Normal School. The same general views apply to the use of our incorporated academies, for the purposes indicated, and their correctness has been fully verified by actual experiment. In the exercise of that enlightened liberality which for a long time has characterized the educational policy of the great State of New York, this identical plan was resorted to as a system of means to qualify the teachers of their Common Schools. An academy was selected in each of the eight senatorial districts, upon which was ingrafted a teachers' department. An ample appropriation was made for a library and apparatus, and a further sum for the salary of an additional instructor. The system won to itself the confidence of the community. The schools were well attended; the pupils were eagerly sought for as

instructors; and such was their success as to induce the Legislature to make still further appropriations for the extension of the system.

But it is in the science of education as in the laws of nature and the principles of art. One discovery or one improvement only prepares us for another, until we look with a feeling of derision upon those original developments which once commanded our unbounded admiration. Such, it would seem, was the progress of opinion as to this reform upon the educational system of New York. Great even as the advantages were which attended this provision, it was found that the plan was only a vein in the vast mine of improvement; and it was rightly supposed that, if the establishment of a department subordinate to other departments was attended with important results to the greatest interests of the State, surely the endowment of an entire institution for the same objects, having no rival aims, engrossed by no partial pursuits, weakened by no incidental or collateral purposes, not, like the mistletoe, insinuating its fibers into the substance of another body, and depending upon it for a precarious, parasitical existence, but striking its supporting roots deeply into the soil over which it was destined to throw its healthful shade, would concentrate, more effectually, the power of effort, and of course extend more widely and more deeply the advancement of learning.

Accordingly, the system of combining teachers' seminaries with academies has been abandoned. A Normal School has been established, with an endowment worthy of the wealth and character of that State. Already the effects of its establishment are visible, and the people look forward to its future influence with a firmer belief than the faith of prophecy.

We come to the consideration of the wisdom of that institution which has been established in our own State—which, in imitation of our example, has been adopted by New York, and which has long existed in other countries. Let us advert briefly to our own State history of Normal Schools.

The law of 1837, creating the Board of Education, made it its duty to submit to the Legislature such observations as experience and reflection might suggest upon the condition and efficiency of our system of popular education, and the most practicable means of improving and extending it.

In obedience to this call, the Board, in its First Annual Report, presented to the Legislature its views of the propriety of the establishment of an institution for the education of teachers, with a well-digested summary of the reasons in favor of such an institution; and the summary concluded with the expression of a sanguine hope that the resources of public or private liberality, applied to such an institution, would soon remedy the existing defects in the character of the teacher.

This appeal to the liberality of individuals was promptly met by one who places a proper estimate upon the usefulness of wealth. Prompted by the importance of the call, Edmund Dwight (I mention it for the hundredth time, because, upon an occasion like the present, our duties would be incomplete without a recognition of the generosity of the act) at once placed the sum of $10,000 conditionally at the disposal of the Board, for the purposes indicated in their report.

The same Legislature, to which the report was made, accepted the donation, fulfilled the condition of its acceptance, and placed at their disposal a sum of equal amount, to be expended in qualifying teachers of our Common Schools. In carrying out the expressed intention of the Legislature, the Board established, at successive periods, three institutions for the instruction of teachers in "the theory and practice" of school-teaching; and when the fund which had been placed at their disposal was expended, the Legislature of 1842 appropriated the further sum of $6000 annually, for three years, to secure their continuance.

Has this conduct, both of our Legislature and of the Board, proceeded from the dictates of a wise policy?

To strip this representation of its illustrations, the propositions may be presented thus:

The provision for the education of the people of the State, at the expense of the State, is essential to its prosperity. That people can only be educated in the Common Schools. Those schools are inadequate to the proper educational training of that people, by reason of the want of a proper degree of attainment

in the teachers. These teachers cannot be educated at our colleges and our academies. No other means are proposed for this purpose than those institutions in which they are to be taught the rules and principles for harmoniously unfolding the physical, the intellectual, and the moral nature of man. And *then* recurs the question—Is the establishment of such institutions the dictate of a wise policy?

It is not necessary to sustain the affirmative by argument. It needs none. The very statement is argument. Illustration cannot strengthen, reason cannot enforce it. What! Here, in Massachusetts, in the Old Colony, "that mother of us all," shall we sit down gravely to discuss a proposition of which even barbarian ignorance has perceived the truth? For now, even now, when the skeptic cavils, and the cautious doubt, the sultan of Turkey has spoken! and, in his zeal for the introduction of the improvements of the age, he has followed an act of religious toleration by the establishment of a Normal School.

France, too, has spoken; and her voice comes to us in tones at once of encouragement and of warning. She has cultivated the intellect, but she has corrupted the heart. She has awakened the susceptibilities of the soul, but she has incited them to crime; and while she has shown us, by the example of intellectual training, of what the system is capable, she has admonished us to neglect not the improvement of those other powers, the harmonious development of which is alone the education of the man.

Prussia also has spoken; and when we contemplate the wonderful effects which the operation of her Normal Schools, for a generation, has wrought upon her people—the more strikingly wonderful, from the disparity which it has created between those who have enjoyed their benefits, and that other and more teachable sex, which, by its exclusion, has been cut off from a common sympathy—we are led to prize the more highly that beneficent provision of our own polity which declares that *all* the people shall be educated.

But, more than all, and above all, Massachusetts has spoken; and her voice sounds harmoniously with that of the great State of New York. She has watched the rise and progress of these institutions with a cautious dread of injudicious innovation, and yet with an earnest zeal for well-considered improvement. She has seen her doubts of their usefulness resolved by the light of experience, and she has incorporated them into her educational policy. The three State Normal Schools are now her recognized offspring, and until perfection shall have superseded the necessity of effort, she stands pledged to their support, by her past history and her present fame. The institution at Newton is Normal in its teachers, Normal in its accommodations, and Normal in the results which it has produced and is still producing. The institution at Westfield will start forth on the 3d of September next, with the means of renewed usefulness; and this day witnesses the commencement of a new effort, which is to extend a benignant influence through future ages.

And now, who will pronounce as unimportant and trifling the occasion of our assembling? Let us draw within the circle of our contemplation the prospective advantages which this institution promises, and see if our imagination clothes with too bright a hue the visions of the future.

We behold its teachers working with the plastic hand of an artist upon the immortal mind. We behold them, not like the painter, who makes the canvas glow with those delineations of genius which a few years will obliterate; not like the sculptor, who fashions and works out the features of greatness, the enduring marble of which the hand of time will soon destroy; but we contemplate them forming, and fashioning, and moulding beings who are to exist forever. Here they are to discipline the intellect, to train the feelings, to curb the passions, to inspire true motives of action, to inculcate pure principles of morality, and to instill that deep feeling of religious obligation which superadds to the precepts of philosophy the impulse of an enlightened conscience. Here are to be taught those doctrines of relation, a knowledge of which is essential to the security of political rights and the performance of social duties. Here are to be drawn out, and developed, and expanded, the illimitable faculties of a being formed in God's own image. Here, in a word, man is to be EDUCATED.

If this was to be the ultimate object of the establishment of this institution, and the pupils, who shall thus be educated, were to go forth only as future

fathers and mothers, and citizens, what might we not expect from their enlightened example!

But it has a more enlarged and extended purpose. The pupils who shall carry from these walls those principles which enlightened wisdom can alone impart, are to enter, year by year, those ten thousand seminaries, in which, day by day, are formed the hearts of the arbiters of this nation's destiny. They are to transfuse those principles into other minds. They are to multiply and extend those streams of improvement which, proceeding from this fountain, are destined to increase as they roll, and to fertilize as they flow.

Let, then, those two great States which have committed themselves to the fulfillment of this great effort, go on, hand in hand, with a unity never to be dissevered. Let their example be for the imitation of other States and the praise of all posterity. Then shall the hardest difficulties which beset the path of free governments smooth themselves out before us, and then shall the blessings of free institutions be bestowed upon the people, like the all-dispensing bounty of the rain and the sunshine

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT BRIDGEWATER.

In 1861 the Legislature appropriated the sum of $4,500 to the enlargement and repairs of the building. By this means the building originally 63 feet long by 41 feet wide, and two stories high, was enlarged by the addition of two wings, each 38 feet long and 24 feet wide, projecting from the center of the main edifice, and of the same height. Upon the lower floor are four convenient recitation rooms, two rooms, one for philosophical and the other for chemical apparatus, one room for mineralogical and geological specimens, and two ante-rooms for the pupils. In the second story, the whole of the original structure is devoted to a common school-room, which is 62 feet long by 40 feet wide, with a large recitation room opening from it into one of the wings, and a large library and reading room into the other wing.

By a subsequent appropriation new furniture has been supplied, the warming and ventilation of the entire building improved, and the grounds graded and securely inclosed.

The Visitors of this school in their report for 1865 report the following statistics:—

Number admitted since September 9, 1840, to September, 1865,	1,499
" of graduates to September, 1865,	956
" in attendance in 1864–65,	122
" graduated in 1865,	22

The course of study now embraces four terms or two years. The Principal expresses a desire for additional assistance "that the quality of our teaching may be improved by reducing the amount, for which the teacher could make more thorough preparation."

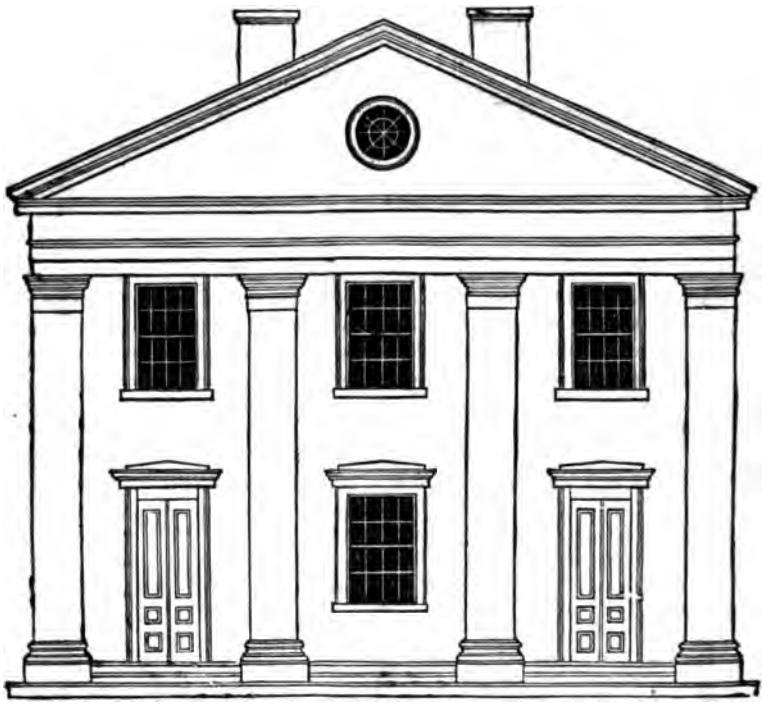
Plans and Descriptions of the Massachusetts Normal School-Houses.

The following plans and descriptions are copied from the "Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education," with the permission of the Hon. Horace Mann, by whose indefatigable labors these institutions were founded, seconded as his efforts were by the munificent donation of the sum of ten thousand dollars, from the Hon. Edmund Dwight, of Boston.

These buildings were erected partly out of the contribution of $5000, subscribed originally by the friends of Mr. Mann, as a testimony of their esteem for his public services, and, at his suggestion, invested in this way—thus converting these edifices into the monuments of their generosity, and of his self-sacrifice.

Bridgewater State Normal School-House.

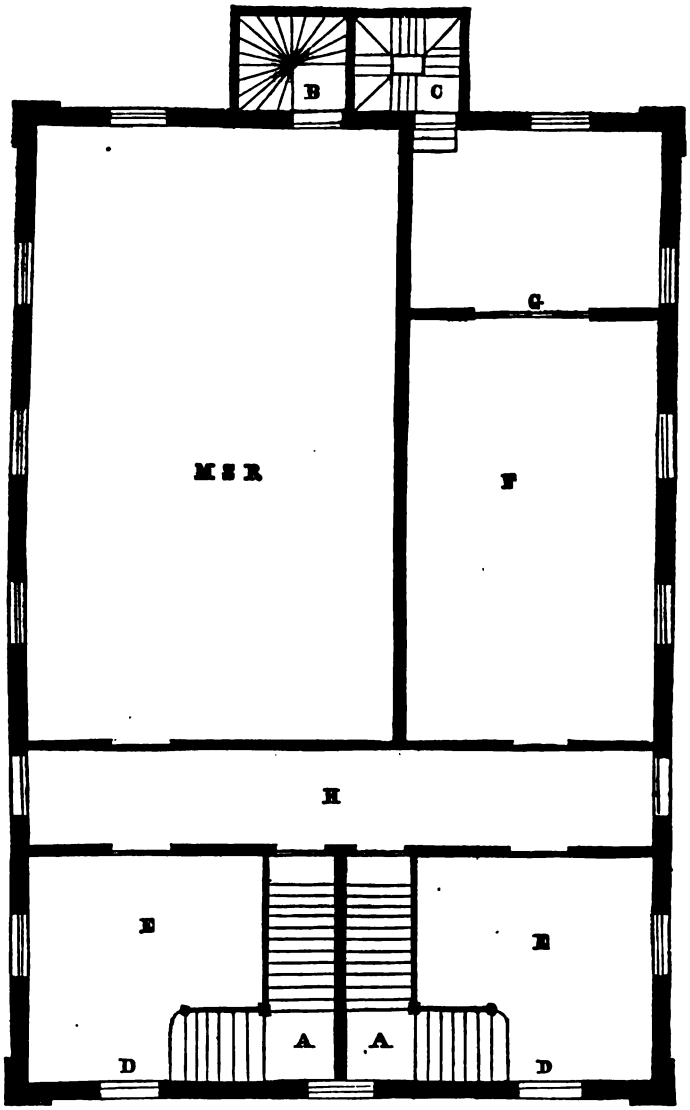
Fig. 1.—Front Elevation.



This edifice is constructed of wood, and is sixty-four feet by forty-two, and two stories in height. The upper story is divided into a principal school-room, forty-one feet by forty, and two recitation-rooms, each twenty feet by twelve, and is designed for the Normal School. The lower story is fitted up for a Model School.

BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

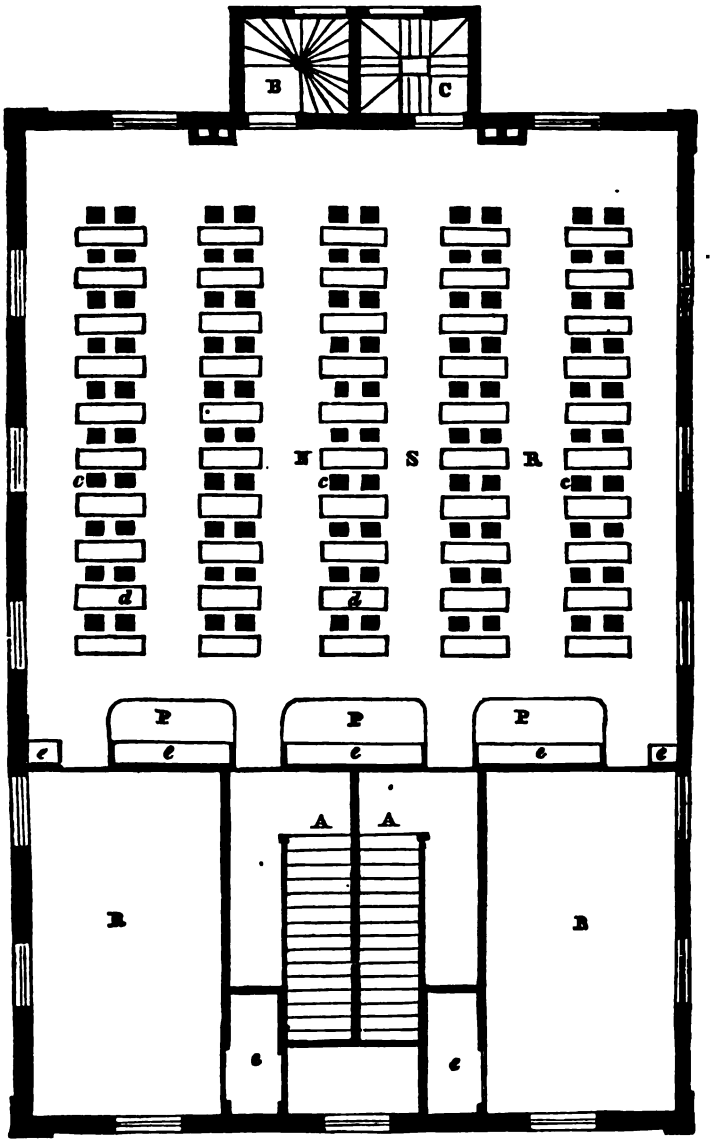
Fig. 2.—LOWER STORY.



D, D—Doors, one for males, the other for females. E, E—Hall-entries, into which the doors D, D open, 19 feet by 15. A, A—Stairways, leading from the entries to the Normal School-room. M, S, R—Model School-room, 40 feet by 24, with single seats and desks. H—Entry-way, 6 feet 8 inches wide, for Model School scholars. At each end of this entry is an outside door, for the entrance of the Model School scholars—a separate entrance for each sex. G, F—Laboratory and chemical room, or lecture-room, connected by folding doors. The two rooms 40 feet by 16. B, C—Back stairways.

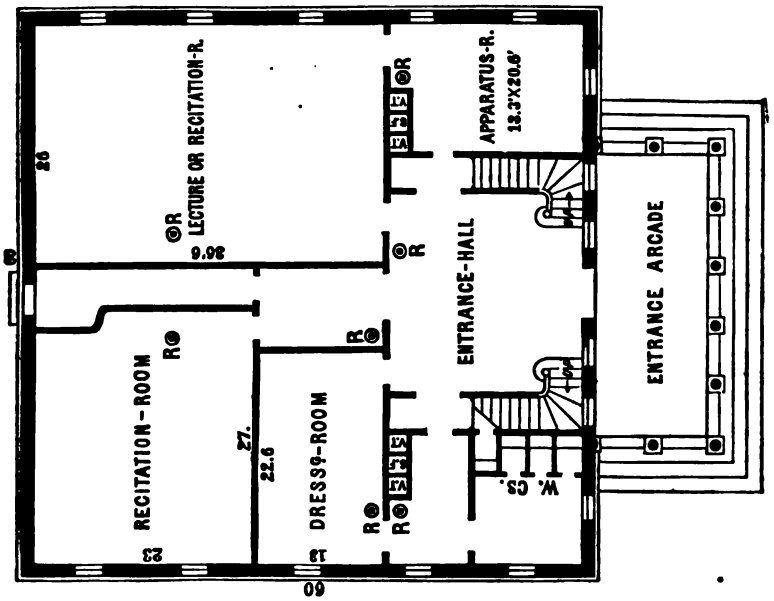
BRIDGEWATER STATE NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Fig. 3.—UPPER STORY.



A, A—Separate stairways, for the different sexes, leading from the lower entries, or halls, to the Normal School-room. N, S, R—Normal School-room, 41 feet by 40. c, c, c—Single seats. d, d—Double desks. P, P, P—Teachers' platform. e, e, e, e, e—Behind the platform are recesses in the partition for a library. e, e—Between R, R, are closets for apparatus. R, R—Recitation-rooms, 22 feet by 12. B, C—Back stairways.

Fig. 2.—First Floor.



V. T—Ventilating Ducts. S. F—Smoke Flue. R—Registers for Hot Air.

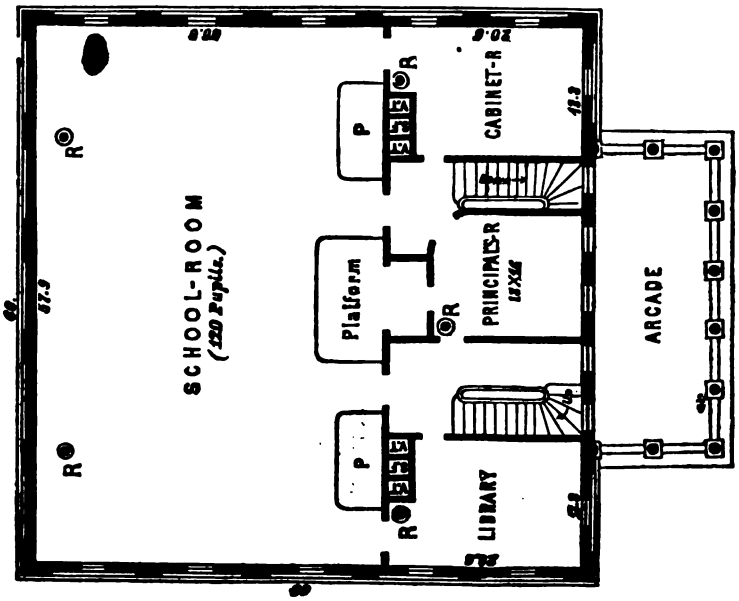


Fig. 3.—Second Floor.

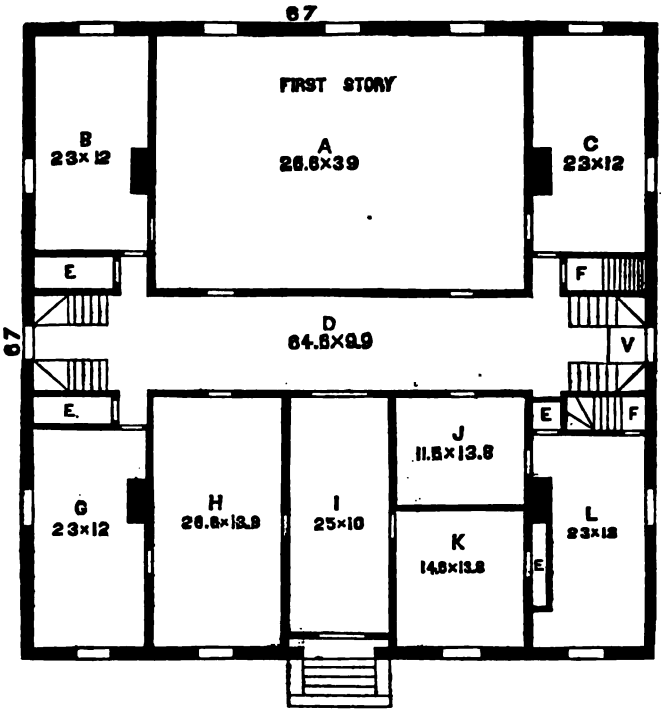


Fig. 1.—First Floor.

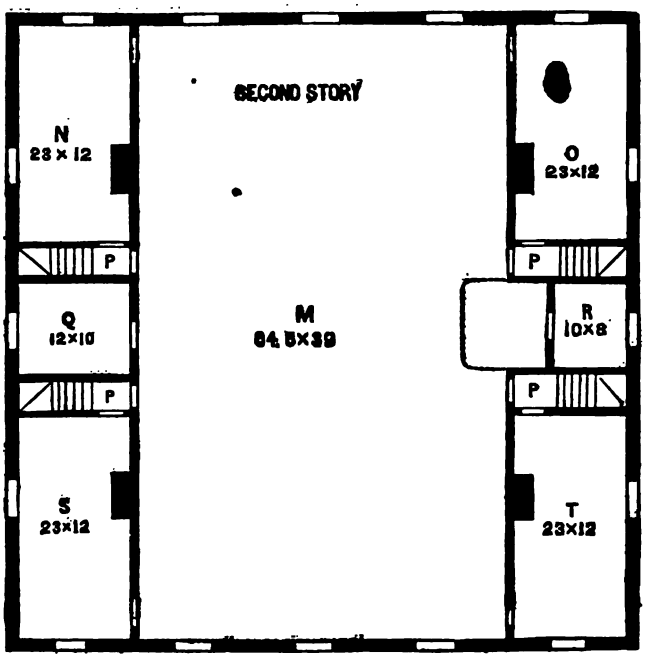


Fig. 2.—Second Floor.

EXTRACT

FROM THE

Fourteenth Annual Report of the Secretary (Rev. Barnas Sears, D. D.) of the Board of Education.

The State Normal Schools are in a flourishing and prosperous condition Notwithstanding the increased rigor exercised in the examination of candidates for admission, and the extension, in two of them, of the required period of study, the numbers in attendance are about as large as ever. The fears entertained by many, that the increase of expense, occasioned by a more protracted course of study, would materially diminish the attendance, are shown to be groundless. The sentiment in favor of a professional education for teachers is becoming so strong in the community, and the public mind is becoming so enlightened in respect to the character of the teachers required, and the policy to be pursued in the choice of them and in remunerating their services, that teachers are compelled either to go through a more thorough course of preparation, or abandon the occupation. In order to keep even pace with the progress of public opinion in regard to an improved system of education, the Normal Schools will need to be gradually elevated till they shall reach that point which is best adapted to teachers designed for the common district school. It will be a question worthy of mature deliberation, whether the higher position designed to be given to the Normal Schools, shall not be attained rather by raising the requisitions for entrance than by prolonging the term of study. I see no good reason why the state should be at the expense of giving, in the Normal Schools, so much of that kind of instruction for which ample provision is already made in the higher public schools. The Normal Schools, to answer their original design, must aim more at furnishing that peculiar training which teachers require, and which the public schools can not give. Then the necessity of their existence will be apparent to all, and no other schools or institutions will complain of being forced into competition with those which enjoy state patronage. A portion of the time which is now spent in teaching the elements of arithmetic, grammar, geography, reading and orthography, might be saved for those higher objects for which more particularly Normal Schools were established. Before many years more shall have passed away, three classes, each having a half year's course of study, might be formed in these schools. The first might be devoted to a critical review and thorough mastery of the studies to be taught in common schools, with such collateral branches as should be deemed necessary; the second, to a philosophical and systematic course of instruction in didactics, or the theory of teaching; the third, to the practice of teaching under the immediate and constant inspection of a superior. The arrangement here proposed would require that a greater degree of attention be paid to the model schools. But it would remove the embarrassment now caused by the interruption of the studies of the class, portions of which are called away to teach, and would render the time spent in teaching in the model school much more profitable both to teacher and pupil. The model school, which may just as well be one of the public schools as any other, should have its own full corps of teachers. The notion of employing pupils from the Normal School, in rotation, in place of an assistant teacher, merely because it is more economical, is unworthy of the liberal policy of the state. When a member of the Normal School enters the model school, the regular teacher or teachers of the latter should not be relieved at all from duty. On the contrary, such teacher should proceed as usual, and the learner should stand by and carefully observe the process, and afterward inquire for the reasons of it, if they should not be fully understood at the time. After a suitable period of observation, the learner should undertake to give a lesson, or some part of one, the principal teacher standing by, noticing the manner in which the instruction is given, and being ready at any moment to resume the exercise. Two important objects would be gained by such an arrangement. First, the school itself would not suffer in its interests from surrendering its classes to be experimented on by young teachers, but would rather be benefited by having all its exercises conducted with reference to illustrating the best methods of teaching. In the second place, the learner would occupy the place of an apprentice, working every moment under the observation and guidance of a master.

Provision has recently been made for advanced classes in the Normal Schools, and several persons have availed themselves of it during the past year. It is evident that the number of such will be constantly increasing, and will require more of the teacher's time than can be given them without abstracting it too much from the regular classes. If such an appendage is to be permanently attached to the Normal Schools, it will be necessary to enlarge the number of instructors to correspond with the additional amount of labor imposed. Perhaps no better course can be recommended for the present. A question of great importance, however, here présents itself for consideration, namely, whether it would not be expedient to make one of our Normal Schools, —that at Bridgewater, for example,—exclusively a school for males, designed to form a higher class of teachers for a corresponding grade of schools. Then each Normal School would have its distinctive character, that at West Newton being for females only, and that at Westfield for both sexes, and every person, who should wish to enjoy the advantages of a Normal School training, could find a school adapted to his particular wants. The difference between the common district school, and the central school of our more populous towns and grammar school of the cities, is becoming so great, that it is no longer possible to look to the same class of individuals for teachers in them all. Besides, the law requiring the establishing of high schools, is rapidly creating a demand for a description of teachers which none of our institutions furnish. The colleges do not educate men with reference to the business of teaching. A young graduate, without any experience in teaching, is but little better prepared to take charge of a high school than he is to practice at the bar. Nor do our Normal Schools give the amount of education requisite for teachers aspiring to a place in the high school. It is at this moment more difficult to procure suitable teachers for high schools than for any other class of schools. The choice ordinarily lies between experienced teachers of limited education, and men of liberal education, who either have had no experience and yet wish to become teachers, or, having had some practice in teaching while earning the money to pay their college bills, wish now to earn still more to enable them to study a profession. It is not safe for towns to open high schools under such auspices, and few committees are willing to expose themselves and their enterprise to these hazards.

If there were a Normal School of a higher order, persons, who had already received a good literary and scientific education elsewhere, might repair to it and attend exclusively to the theory and practice of teaching. Even graduates from the colleges, who propose to become teachers, would, in many instances, avail themselves of such opportunities for studying the art which they are to practice for life. An air exclusively professional would thus be given to the school, and a shorter period of attendance might suffice than would be necessary in the other Normal Schools.

V. ENGLISH PEDAGOGY.

THE following are the CONTENTS and INDEX of a volume * of 480 pages, embracing some of the best treatises and suggestions on education to be found in English literature, and which, in the absence of good American editions, have been republished in this Journal.

PART I.

PAGES.

INTRODUCTION, ... 9 to 20

WHAT IS EDUCATION? Defined by Eminent English Authorities, ... 11

PART II.

TREATISES AND THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION, ... 20 to 400

ROGER ASCHAM, 1515 to 1568, ... 21 to 76

MEMOIR, ... 23

TOXOPHILUS: or the Art of Schootinge, ... 30

THE SCHOOLMASTER, ... 45

ANNOTATIONS, ... 45

Lord Burleigh; Advice to his Son, ... 55

LORD BACON, 1561 to 1626, ... 77 to 122

MEMOIR, ... 77

INFLUENCE OF HIS METHOD OF PHILOSOPHY ON EDUCATION AND SCHOOLS, ... 79

ESSAY ON CUSTOM AND EDUCATION, ... 79

ANNOTATIONS. By Archbishop Whately, ... 97

ESSAY ON STUDIES, ... 103

ANNOTATIONS. By Archbishop Whately, ... 105

SIR HENRY WOTTON, 1568 to 1639, ... 123 to 144

MEMOIR, ... 123

APOTHEGMS ON EDUCATION, ... 130

JOHN MILTON, 1608 to 1674, ... 145 to 190

MEMOIR, ... 145

HOME, School and College Education. By D. Masson, ... 160

TRACTATE ON EDUCATION, ... 178

ANNOTATIONS, ... 188

Early Promoters of Practical Science in England, ... 188

Charles Hoole—Object Teaching, ... 189

Abraham Cowley—Plan of Philosophical College, ... 190

SAMUEL HARTLIB, 1610 to 1664, ... 191 to 198

MEMOIR, ... 188

PLAN OF AN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, 1651, ... 191

SIR WILLIAM PETTY, 1623 to 1666, ... 199 to 208

MEMOIR, ... 189

PLAN OF AN INDUSTRIAL OR TRADE SCHOOL, ... 199

JOHN LOCKE, 1632 to 1704, ... 209 to 342

MEMOIR, ... 209

SURVEY OF PEDAGOGICAL SYSTEM, ... 215

THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION—Entire, ... 223

HERBERT SPENCER, 1805, ... 343 to 400

THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION—Selected, ... 345

* Volume V. of Barnard's AMERICAN LIBRARY OF EDUCATION.

PART III.

PAGE.

THE SCHOOL AND THE TEACHER IN ENGLISH LITERATURE, ... 401 to 464

THOMAS FULLER, 1608 to 1687, ... 403 to 408

THE GOOD SCHOOLMASTER, ... 403

OLIVER GOLDSMITH, 1728 to 1784, ... 407

THE VILLAGE SCHOOLMASTER, ... 407

WILLIAM SHENSTONE, 1714 to 1763, ... 409 to 426

THE SCHOOLMISTRESS, ... 409

ANNOTATIONS, ... 417

The Country School in France, Delille, ... 409

The Usher, Lloyd, ... 416

The Schoolmistress in Scotland, Gilfillan, ... 417

" " New England, Burton, ... 422

The Birch, a Poem, ... 423

The Rod, a Poem, ... 424

The Hora-Book, ... 425

THOMAS GRAY, 1716 to 1771, ... 427 to 432

ODE ON THE DISTANT PROSPECT OF ETON COLLEGE, ... 427

ALLIANCE OF EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT, ... 430

WILLIAM COWPER, 1731 to 1800, ... 433 to 454

TIROCINIUM; OR A REVIEW OF SCHOOLS, ... 434

DISCIPLINE, ... 453

GEORGE CRABBE, 1707 to 1832, ... 455 to 463

SCHOOLS OF THE BOROUGH, ... 455

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE, 1774 to 1834, ... 464

LOVE, HOPE, AND PATIENCE IN THE TEACHER, ... 464

ASCHAM, BACON, WOTTON, MILTON, LOCKE, AND SPENCER, ON EDUCATION. Edited by HENRY BARNARD, LL. D. 1862. Price, $1.50. 400 pages 8vo.

ENGLISH PEDAGOGY: or Education, the School, and the Teacher in English Literature—in a Series of Papers prepared for "*The American Journal of Education.*" Edited by HENRY BARNARD, LL. D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1862. Price, $2.50 Parts I., II., III. 480 pages 8vo. Price, $2.00.

INDEX TO ENGLISH PEDAGOGY.

A-B-C., how taught, 417, 306.
Academy, Milton's Plan of, 150, 181.
Academicum Nosocomium, or College of Health, 204.
Acting of Plays—Bacon and Raumer on, 92.
Active Amusements, 40.
Activity, Mental, 351.
Ad Clerum, Sermon at Cambridge, 173.
Addison, J., Sculpture and Education, 16.
Admission and Matriculation, 172.
Advice of W. P., on Trade Schools, 197.
Advices to his Son, by Lord Burleigh, 51.
  Choice of a Wife, 52.
  Education of Children, 52.
  Country Home, 52.
  Hospitality to Friends, 53.
  Borrowing and Suretyship, 53.
  Litigation with the Poor, 53.
  Conduct towards Rank, 53.
  Conversation, 53.
Æsop's Fables in Latin, 308.
Æsthetics, 39.
Affectation in Manner, 251.
Agriculture, Plan of College of, 191.
  Professors in University, 190.
  Suggestions by Cowley, 100.
  " Hartlib, 188, 191,
  " Milton, 182.
  " Petty, 189.
  " Locke, 337.
Air, exercise in open, 229.
Allurements to learning, 71.
Alphabet, how taught, 306, 417.
Amusements, 397.
Anger, in parent or child, 364.
Animals, cruelty to, 287.
  training of, 345.
Annotations on Bacon's Essay on Education, 96.
  " " " Studies, 104.
Antiquity, Bacon's Estimate of, 85.
Architecture, 183.
Aphorisms on Education, 11, 137.
Archery, 39, 43.
Archimedes, application of Aphorism of, 142.
Aristotle, 38, 41, 117.
  Value of Pastimes, 41.
  Style, 38.
  Influence of, 117.
  Bacon's opposition to, 87.
Arithmetic, 201, 323.
Arts, Degrees in, 172.
Ascham, R., Memoir, 23.
  Toxophilus, 24, 39.
  The Schoolmaster, 37.
  Interview with Lady Jane Grey, 32.
  Character as a Teacher, 25.
  " Writer on Education, 38.
  " Man, 38.
Asterly, J., 55.
  Treatise on Riding, 55.
Astronomy, 183, 190, 394.
Astronomical Observatory, 190, 203.
Athens, Example of Right Training, 66.
Attention, 314.
Aubrey's Account of Milton's Studies, 167.
  Of Milton's Whipping, 175.
Austin, S., Attainable ends of Education, 20.
Authority in Studies, 111.
Aversion to Study, 292.
Awe, or Reverence of Parents, 241.
Aylmer, 28, 32.

Bachelor of Arts, 173.
Bacon, F., Memoir, 77.
  Raumer's Estimate of Philosophy, 77, 84, 93
  Estimate of Antiquity, 85.
  Goethe, Criticism on, 89.
  Opinion of Schools of the Jesuits, 91.
  Genetic Method, 90.
  Methods should vary, 90.
  Public and Private Schools, 91.
  Acting of Plays, 93.
  Essay on Custom and Education, 95.
    Studies, 103.
  Annotations on, 96, 104.
Bacon, R., 80.
Barrow, I., Idea of Education, 13.
Beating, 55, 170.
  Anselm, 55.
  Ascham, 55, 64.
  Locke, 243, 260.
  Socrates, 62.
  Spencer, 369.
Beds for children, 236.
Behavior, formed by Practice, not by lectures, 232.
Bent, natural, 91, 107.
Bible on Education, 308, 309, 330.
Biology, 392.
Birch, scholastic uses of, 422.
Blood, quantity and quality, 354.
Bodies of Children, 347.
Bond R., teacher of Ascham, 23, 405.
Book-keeping, 339.
Books, 108, 139, 463.
Botany, 183, 190.
Bowling, as Recreation, 44.
Bristol Diamonds, 404.
Brain, Influence on Bodily Functions, 354.
Bully, the School, 440, 461.
Burleigh, Memoir, 51.
  Advices to his Son, 51. *See* Advices.
Burke, E., Education of Mankind, 17.
Burton, W., My First Teacher, 416.
Butler, Bishop, 16.
Butler, S., 425.
Byron, Lord, 425.

Caesar, 70.
Callimachus, 43.
Calling, or Natural Inclination to Pursuit, 107
Campe, 209, 220.
Cambridge University, 23, 167.
  Milton's Residence at, 167.
  Classification of Students, 168.
  Terms and Daily Routine, 169.
  Discipline, 170.
  Physical Exercise, 171.
  Religious Duties, 171
  Curriculum, 172.
  Quadriennium, 172.
  Degrees, 173.
  Triennium, 174.
  Corporeal Punishment, 170.

Capacity to be searched out, 133.
Captiousness, 302.
Catechism, 309.
Cecil, Sir W., 44, 51.
Censoriousness, 301.
Ceremony, 302.
Chaining the Dictionary, 404.
Checke, Sir J., 48, 55.
Chemistry, 391.
Chess, 29, 40.
Chiding, 57, 246, 259.
Childishness, 247.
Children, the Right Bringing Up, 56, 356.
  Special Preparation for, 356, 393.
Chronology, 394.
Chrysostom, 74.
Cicero, 41.
Citizen, Knowledge for a, 396.
Civil Law, 325.
Civility, 280, 289, 299.
Classical Learning, 57, 218.
Clothing, Combe on, 348.
  Liebig, 349.
  Locke, 230.
  Spencer, 248.
Clulow, W. B., 16.
Cold, and Growth, 348.
  Liebig, 349.
  Locke, 227.
  Spencer, 348.
Cold Water, 228.
Coleridge, H., Life of Ascham, 23.
  S. T., Characteristics of the Teacher, 464.
College of Agriculture, 190, 191.
Color, 382.
Combe, A., 346, 349.
Comenius and Bacon, 94.
  Locke, 219.
  England, 189.
  Janua Reserata, 179, 189.
Commandments, the Ten, 219.
Commands, few but decisive and just, 369.
Commencing Master of Arts, 181.
Commencement Day, 173.
Commendation, 145, 245.
Common-Place-Book, 74.
Common Sense, or Wisdom, 271, 299.
Commentaries, 138.
Company, 253, 304.
Compendiums, 138.
Competition of Business, 351.
Complaints, 280.
Complexion, as Indication of Talent, 137.
Composition, 328.
Compulsion, 55, 259, 293.
Condiments, 231.
Conduct, 260.
Constructive Habits of Children, 207.
Contempt, 301.
Contradiction, 301.
Cook, Sir A., 51.
Corporeal Punishment, 55, 170, 243, 422.
Cowardice, 283.
Courage, 284.
Covetousness, 216.
Cowley, A., Memoir, 190.
  Plan of a Philosophical College, 190.
  Professors Resident, 190.
  " Itinerant, 190.
  Astronomical Observatory, 190.
  Chemical Laboratory, 190.
  Botanical and Zoölogical Garden, 190.
  Course in Agriculture, 190.
  Military Exercises, 190.
Cowper, W., Memoir, 433.
  Lines on his Mother, Home, and School, 433.
  Tirocinium, or a Review of Schools, 436.
  Discipline, 453.
Cox, W., Natural Order of Knowledge, 19.
Crabbe, G., Memoir, 455.
  The Good Schoolmistress, 421.
Crabbe, G., the Schools of the Borough, 454.
Craving, 240, 277.
Cruelty, 287.
Crying, 281.
Curiosity, 112, 279, 289.
Custom and Education, by Bacon, 95.
  Stronger than Inclination, or Precept, 95.
  Examples in Training of Indians and Spartans, 95.
  Good Habits should be formed Early, 96.
  Confirmed by Education, 96.
  Annotations by Whately, 96.
  Custom and Habit, 97.
  Biasing the Minds of Children, 97.
  Predominancy of Custom, 98.
  Power of Party-spirit, 99.
  Passage from Wish, Hope, Belief, to Action, 100.
  Indications of what is commonly said or done, 101.
  Bacon's Character and Career an example of Habit over Precept, 102.

Dancing, 44, 334.
Darkness and Objects of Terror, 298.
Dating, Double Mode of, 167.
Dejection, or Cowing, 243.
Development, 353.
Diary of a Domestic, quoted, 51.
Dictation not Teaching, 25.
Didactics, referred to, by Milton, 189.
Diet of Children, 345.
  Milton, 185.
  Locke, 231
  Spencer, 345.
Difficulties should not be multiplied, 313.
Diodati, Friend and Correspondent of Milton, 176.
Discipline, Nature's Law of, 358.
  Illustrated, Consequences, 362.
  Influence on Parents, 369.
  Aim of, Self-government, 370.
  Conditions of, Successful, 371.
  Picture of True, by Cowper, 453.
Disgrace, 246.
Disposition, or Liking to a Study, 257.
Distance and Reserve, 274.
Disputation, 304.
District School as it was, 416.
Docendo disces, 25.
Dominion, or Love of Power, 276.
Double Translation, 37.
Drawing and Designing, 381.
  Petty, 201.
  Locke, 410.
Drawing out of the Faculties, 11, 16.
Drink, 233.
Dull Wits, 59, 99.

Early Moral Influence, 237.
Early Stimulation of the Faculties, 352.
Eating, 231, 345.
Economics, 183.
Educare and Educere, 11.
Education and Custom, 12, 13, 95, 100.
Education Defined, 11.
  Addison, 16.
  Ascham, 12.
  Austin, 20.
  Bacon, 12.
  Barrow, 12.
  Bolingbroke, 12.
  Butler, 16.
  Clulow, 19.
  Cox, 19.
  Grote, 18.
  Hamilton, 15, 18.
  Harris, 16.
  Helps, 18.
  Hobbs, 14.
  Hooker, 13.
  Johnson, 15.
  Lalor, 20.
  Locke, 14.
  Milton, 12.

Education Defined, Paley, 17.
Parr, 17.
Pope, 14.
Ramsden, 17, 19.
Ruskin, 19.
Shakspeare, 11.
Short 13.
South 13.
Spencer, 388.
Whately, 18.
Whewell, 11
Whichcote, 13.
Wotton, 12.
Education, kinds.
Abstract, 375.
Agricultural, 191, 337.
Academic, 163.
Collegiate, 167.
Empirical, 376.
Governmental, 431.
Home 256.
Industrial, 199, 336.
Intuitional, 377.
Inevitable, 377.
Natural, 19, 373.
Private, 213.
Public, 131, 145.
Pleasurable, 376.
Real and verbal, 87.
Rational, 376.
Rote, 372.
Rule, 372.
Self-developing, 376.
Education, Processes.
Building, 131.
Direction, 18.
Development, 11.
Drawing out, 11.
Grafting, 18, 101.
Growth, 16.
Habits, 13.
Husbandry, 132.
Obedience to Law, 13.
Preparation, 15.
Restraint, 18.
Self-activity, 376.
Soundness of Mind and Body, 226.
Sculpture, 16.
Edward VI., 30.
Elizabeth, Queen, 28, 31, 69.
Elmer, Teacher of Lady Jane Grey, 32.
Emulation, 444.
Encouragement, 244, 290.
English Language, 327, 328.
English Law, 326.
Epitome, 75, 138.
Epistolary Composition, 327.
Ergastula Literaria, 200.
Esteem of Others, 62, 222, 245.
Eton College, Gray's Ode on, 431
Ethics, 325.
Example, 256, 263, 266, 448.
Excuses, 296.
Excursions into the Country, 187.
Exercise, Physical, 37.
Ascham, 37.
Locke, 335,
Milton, 185.
Spencer, 350.
Experience, 366.
Eye, The, 135.

Familiarity of Parent and Child, 273.
Family Management, 393.
Knowledge necessary to Learning, 303.
Physical Welfare, 303.
Moral " 303.
Mental " 306.
Fancy, or Artificial Craving, 277.
Fatty Matter in Food, 346.
Fear as a Motive to Study, 63.
Fear as a Motive to Study, Ascham, 62.
Locke, 264.
Feet, Treatment of, 298.
Fellenberg, 377.
Fellow Commoner, 168.
Female Education, 28.
Queen Elizabeth, 29.
Countess of Pembroke, 29.
Lady Jane Grey, 63.
Fencing, in Military Academy, 185.
Locke, 335.
Ferula, 405.
Fiction, Works of, without religious principle, 118.
Field Sports, for Literary Men, 42.
Fishing, as Recreation, 41, 43.
Fool-hardiness, 283.
Food for Children, 345.
Excess and Restriction, 345.
Quality, 347.
Quantity, 347.
Variety, 348.
Forcing System, 372.
Form, 381.
Fortification, 183.
French Language, 311.
Friendship and Confidence of the Child, 273.
Fruit, 346.
Locke, 234.
Spencer, 346.
Fuller, T., Memoir, 403.
Holy State, cited, 43.
Recreation, 43.
The Good Schoolmaster, 403.

Galen, 27, 40.
Value of Active Amusements, 40.
Deprecates excessive attention to Music, 27.
Galleries of Paintings, 203.
Games, 350.
Gardening, 337.
Gedike, 290.
Geography, 393.
Geology, 120.
Geometry, 383.
Ascham, 27.
Milton, 183.
Petty, 201.
Locke, 313, 394.
Spencer, 383.
Wyse, 383.
Primary, 383.
Empirical, 384.
Gilfillan, 416.
Gill, A., Teacher of Milton, 164.
Logonomia Anglica, 164.
Girls, Education of, 270, 350.
Petty, 207.
Spencer, 350.
Physical Exercises for, 350.
Plays and Pastimes, 350.
Forcing System, 354.
Crabbe, 458.
Globes, 394.
Gnosticism, Modern, 102.
Goblins and Demons, 297.
God, the Love and Reverence of, 287.
Goethe, on Bacon's Method, 80.
Good Breeding, 139, 251, 299.
in Tutor or Teacher, 267.
Good Nature, 298.
Government of Children, 265, 371.
Complex and Difficult, 371.
Knowledge for, required, 371.
Governor, or Private Tutor, 265.
Qualifications and Duties of, 267.
Grafting of a Tree, and Education, 100.
Grammar, when and why Taught, 317.
Ascham, 70, 74.
Locke on, 316.
Spencer, 373.
Grant, Dr., 23.

Gray, T., Memoir, 426.
Ode on Eton College, 428.
Education and Government, 431.
Greek Language, 25, 166, 182, 332.
Proverb, Love of Learning, 15.
Grey, Lady Jane, 33.
Interview with Ascham, 32.
Compliment to her Teacher, 32.
Letter of Ascham in Greek, 33
Grote, J., 18.
Definition of Education, 18.
Growth, Expenditure of Vitality in, 347.
and Development, Antagonism of, 353.
Gymnastics and Plays, 351.

Habit, Force of, 12, 13, 14, 249.
Habits, Necessity of Forming, 16, 248.
Formed Insensibly, 99.
Hadden, W., 54.
Happiness, a Tonic, 351.
A Test of Utility, 376.
Hardening Process, Locke on, 229.
Spencer, 348.
Hardiness, 286.
Harris, J., 16.
Hartgrave, 405.
Hartlib, S., 178, 188, 190.
Preface to Plan of College, 191.
Plan of College of Husbandry Learning, 192.
Office of Public Address, 190.
Head, Covering of, 227.
Health, 296.
A Duty, 355.
Heart of a Nation, 17
Helps, A., 18.
Hermes, quoted, 16.
History, Study of, 119, 325.
Dwells too little on every-day Life, 119.
Studied to find certain Facts, 119.
Hobbs, T., 14.
Home Education, 256.
of Milton, 160.
Hood, T., Memoir, 465.
The Irish Schoolmaster, 465.
Hooker, R., on Law, 13.
Hoole, Charles, 189.
Horace, cited, 97, 405.
Hornbook, 425.
Horseback Riding, 40, 186.
Howe, Margaret, Wife of R. Ascham, 34.
Humility, 302.
Humoring, or Fondling, 237.
Hunting, 43.
Lord Burleigh on, 43.
Husbandry Learning, 191.
College for, 192.

Idleness in Children, not Natural, 204, 377.
Ignorance, Knowledge of our Own, 106.
Sources of, 106.
Imagination, 120.
Office of, in Study of History, 121.
Imitation, in learning a Language, 76.
Inclinations, Mastery of, 278.
Indifference to Knowledge, 291.
Industrial Success, 389.
Informare, 11.
Information, 11.
Inquisitiveness, 291.
Insegnare, 11.
Instruction should be Pleasurable, 386.
Interlinear Translations, 313.
Interruption of Conversation by Children, 303.
Intuition, Basis of Teaching, 373.
Intuitional Exercise of the Perception, 377.
Intuitive Perceptions, 89.
Inventions, History of, 204.
Irish Schoolmaster, the, 465.
Italian Language, 183.

Janua, Milton's Reference to, 179.

Jesuits, Schools of, 91.
Jews, German, hardy Habits of, 288.
Johnson, S., 15.
Power of Habit, 99.
Criticism and Strictures on Milton, 151.
Love of Learning, 15.
Studies to be pursued by Youth, 152.
Joinery, 337.
Judgment not exercised by Mathematics, 114.
Justice, Love and Practice of, 281.
Of Nature's Law of Discipline, 368.
Juvenile Discipline, 357.
Nature's Law of Reaction, 358.
Illustrations, 361.
Consequences, 362.
Juvenile Good Conduct, 368.
Too Much Expected, 368.

Kepler, 78.
Knowledge, Desire of, 15, 17, 61, 279.
Is Power, 95.
Of our own Ignorance, 106.
Value of a Little, 107.
Of the World, for a Tutor, 269.
For a Youth, 270.
Continuously Pleasurable, 386.
Relative Value of, 388.
For Self-Preservation, 389.
" Industrial Success, 389.
" Rearing a Family, 393.
" Physical Training, 393.
" Moral " 394.
" Mental " 395.
" Functions of a Citizen, 396.
" Enjoyment of Nature, 398.
" Discipline of Faculties, 399.

Labor, Lycurgus on, 42.
La Bruyere, on the Study of Languages, 332.
On Politeness, 218.
Lacedæmonians, 42.
Lalor, J., Education Defined, 20.
Language, Learning a new, 70, 311.
Why Learned, 316.
Languages, Ancient, 332, 398.
Modern, 398.
Latin Language, 70, 290, 322.
Ascham's Method, 70.
Locke's " 290, 311, 322.
Cicero's " 70.
Milton, 180.
Speaking, 71, 312.
Pronunciation, 181.
Versification, 290, 322.
Law and Jurisprudence, 184.
Layng, H., Author of the Rod, 422.
Laziness, 292.
Learn by Teaching, 25.
Learning, and Experience, 67.
Little, Pope's View of, 104.
" Whately's, 104.
or Mental Culture, 305.
Secondary to Moral Training, 305.
by Heart, made a Pastime, 308.
by Rote, 372.
Lesser Pensioner, 168.
Liberality, to be Cultivated, 280.
Liberty in Sports, 279.
Life, a State of Education for Eternity, 20.
Locke, John, Memoir, 209.
Raumer's Pedagogical System of, 211.
Thoughts on Education, 225.
Dedication, 225.
Education Defined, 226.
1. Physical Education, 226
Excessive Tenderness, 227
Warmth, Clothing, 227, 230.
Feet, Bathing in Cold Water, 228.
Swimming, Exercise in open air, 229
Diet, Meals, Fruit, Drink, 231, 233.
Sleep, Bed, 235.

Locke, Physic, Prevention and not Medicine, 236.
2. Moral Culture, 237.
Early Influence in Formation of Habits, 237.
Craving, 240, 277.
Punishments, avoided by right Habits, 242.
Awe, Mastery of Inclin's, Submission, 243.
Beating, 243, 263.
Rewards and Encouragements, 244.
Reputation, Esteem and Disgrace, 245.
Childishness and Sports, 247.
Rules, few, 248.
Habits, Practice, 249.
Affectation, Manners, 251, 302.
Company, Public Schools, 253.
Vice, Virtue, 255.
Private Education, 256.
Example, Tasks, 257.
Inclination, Compulsion, 258, 293.
Chiding, Obstinacy, 259, 260.
Reasoning, Whipping, 262.
Private Tutor, or Governor, 265.
Familiarity, Reverence, 273
Temper, Dominion, 275.
Curiosity, 279, 289.
Recreation, 279, 295.
Complaint of each other, 280.
Liberality, Justice, 280.
Crying, 281.
Fool-hardiness, Courage, Cowardice, 283.
Timorousness, Hardiness, 286.
Cruelty, 287.
Sauntering, Inattention, 291.
Lying, Excuses, 295.
God, Spirits, Goblins, Truth, 297.
Common Sense, Breeding, 299.
Roughness, Contempt, Censoriousness, 300.
Contradiction, Captiousness, 301.
Interruption, Dispute, 304.
3. Intellectual Education, 305.
Reading, 305.
Writing, Drawing, Shorthand, 309.
French, Latin, 311, 322.
Grammar, Themes, Versifying, 316.
Memoriter Recitation, 320.
Geography, Arithmetic, Astronomy, 322.
Geometry, Chronology, History, 324.
Ethics, Civil Law, English Law, 325.
Rhetoric and Logic, English Language, 328.
Natural Philosophy, 329.
Greek Language, 332.
Method and Order of Studies, 333.
4. Exercises in the vari's depart'nts of Educ., 334
Dancing, Music, 221, 334.
Fencing, 335.
Manual Trades, 336, 338.
Painting, Gardening, Joinery, 337.
Recreations, 338.
Mercantile Accounts, 339.
Travel, 340.
Conclusion, 342.
Logic, Milton, 184.
Locke, 221, 396.
Lord's Prayer, how taught, 308.
Love, a Motive to Study, 63, 69.
in a Teacher, 464.
Lloyd, Sarah, The Schoolmistress, 426.
Lying, 239, 295.

Machiavel, on power of Custom, 95.
Man, Subject of Education, 436.
Management of Children, 356.
Mandeville, B., Essay on Charity Schools, 107.
Manners, 139, 251, 268.
Manual Labor and Mechanical Dexterity, 202, 336.
Marcel, C., 373, 374.
Marcellinus, 134.
Martial, quoted, 36.
Mason, Sir J., 54.
Mathematical Reasoning, 117, 201.
Mathematics, 59, 91, 114, 201, 231, 300.
Meals, 232.
Medcalf, Dr., 23.
Medicine or Physic, in general Education, 182.
Memoriter Recitation, 321.
Memory necessary to the Scholar, 61, 135.
How Strengthened, 321, 322.
Artificial Aids to, 201.
Mental Activity, Excess of, 351.
Training, hard and easy way of, 91.
Mercantile Arithmetic, 232.
Metaphrasis, 75.
Metaphysics, 83, 180.
Merchants' Accounts, 339.
Method, Importance of, 334.
Mildmay, Walter, 54.
Military Exercises, 186, 190.
Recommended by Milton, 186.
" Cowley, 190.
Milton, 147, 160, 178.
Memoir, 147.
Home Life and Education, 147, 160.
Private Teacher, 162.
St. Paul School, 163.
As a Schoolboy, 166.
Christ College, Cambridge, 167.
Victim of Corporeal Punishment, 175.
Tractate on Education, 178.
End of Learning, 12, 179.
Definition of Education, 181
Plan of an Academy, 181.
Mitford, J., Answer to Johnson's Strict. on Milton, 182.
Modern Languages, 311.
Moral Culture, 237, 356.
Milton, 147, 184.
Locke, 237.
Spencer, 356.
Cowper, 452.
More, H., on Practice and Habit, 90.
Morysine, Sir R., 31.
Mother's unconscious Tuition of Objects, 379.
Power over Moral Education, 51.
Motives to Study, 63.
Ascham, 63, 69.
Plato on, 56.
Milton on, 182.
Locke on, 257.
Mulcaster, R., 406.
Music, Ascham on, 27, 59
Galen on, 27, 59.
H. Coleridge, 27.
Milton, 28, 186.
Locke, 221.
My First Teacher, 416.

Natural Bent of the Genius, 91, 107, 137.
Natural Consequences of Actions, 358.
Natural Philosophy, Bacon on, 83, 94, 190, 329
Nature, Study of the Science, 331.
Laws of, How Ascertained, 90.
Reactionary Laws of, 353.
Nature's Law of Discipline, 358.
Illustrated in a Child's Litter, 361.
Not being ready for a Walk, 362.
Breaking Playthings, 362.
Advantages of, 364.
Navigation, 183.
New England Country School, 471.
District School Teacher, 416, 419.
Nicassius, 55.
Nosocomium Academicum, of Sir W. Petty, 204.
Nursery Management, 357.

Object Teaching, 84, 189, 373, 378.
Observing Faculties, 373.
Obstinacy, 260.
Office of Common Address, 198.
Opportunities, for a Pursuit, 107, 144
Orbilius, 405.
Over Education, 354.
Ovid, 42.

Pain, the Punishment of Law violated, 358.

Painting, 337.
Paley, Education Defined, 15.
Paraphrase, in Learning Latin, 74.
Parental Duties, Preparation for, 356.
  Displeasure, 367.
  Ignorance, 393.
Parent and Child, Relation of, 365.
Parents, Overfondness, 227, 240.
  Over Estimate of Capacity, 132.
Parr, S., Nature of Education, 17.
Party Spirit, Power of, 99.
Passion, Mind to be kept free of, 314.
Pastime, Characteristics of true, 43.
  Place of, in Education, 68.
Pell's Mathematical Treatises, 204.
Pember, R., Letter to Ascham, 25.
Pembroke, Countess of, 29.
  Instructed in Latin by Ascham, 29.
Penmanship, Ascham's, 26, 34.
  Lord Palmerston on, 26.
  Locke, 309.
Pensioner, at Cambridge, 167.
Persians, Aim in Education, 66.
Perspective, 383.
Pestalozzi, 377.
Peter, Sir W., 54.
  Petty, Sir W., 189.
  Plan of a Trade School, 199.
Philosophical College, Plan of Cowley, 190.
Physic, 236.
Physical Education, 226, 345.
  Milton, 185.
  Locke, 211, 226.
  Spencer, 345.
Physical Indications of the Scholar, 61, 133.
  Comeliness and Perfection of Parts, 134.
  Complexion, Head, 134.
  Eye, 135.
Physical Science in Education, 151, 329, 399.
Physics, the Mother of Sciences, 331, 373.
  Relative Value of 391.
Physiognomy, 133.
Plato, 41, 49, 56, 436.
Plutarch, 132.
Play, 41, 43, 350, 483.
Play-place, 441.
Playthings, Supply and Restraint of 294.
Plays, Acting of, Bacon on, 92.
  Raumer, 93.
Pliny, Recommended, 26
Poems and Tales, Influence on the Judgment 117.
Poetry, Devotion to, 220.
  Milton, 184.
  Locke, 320.
Politeness, 218, 219.
Political Economy, Student of, 120.
Politics, Recommended by Milton, 184.
Pope, A., Power of Education, 14.
Practical Science, 183, 190, 199.
Praise, Love of, 62, 145, 245, 336.
Precocity, to be Deprecated, 58, 352
Prior, Gingerbread Horn-book, 425.
Private or Home Education, 254, 256.
Promise in a Child, Marks of, 61, 133, 135.
Public or Boarding Schools, 253.
  Locke, 253.
  Cowper, 440.
  Crabbe, 459.
Punishments, 242, 257, 304.
Pursuit, How determined, 107.

Quadriennium, at Cambridge, 172, 177.
Questions, Preliminary to Study, 112.
  Of Instruction, 112.
  Of Examination, 112.
Quickness of Wit, 58.

Raillery, 301.
Ramsden, Prof., 17, 19.
Ratich, Obligations to Bacon, 94.
Raumer, on Bacon's Pedagogy 80.
Raumer, on Bacon's Pedagogy, Locke's, 289.
Reaction, Law of, in Education, 358.
Reading, Office of, 102.
  Mode and Purposes of, 111.
  Questioning, Analysis, &c., 112.
  With Curiosity excited, 112.
  Through Colored Spectacles, 110.
  Locke's Thoughts on, 306.
  Made a Pastime, 307.
Realism, Verbal and Real, 87, 179, 189, 198, 200.
Reasoning, Conditions for, 115.
  Candor of Mind essential, 116.
  With Children, 262.
Recreation to the Student, 42.
  Ascham on, 39, 42.
  Aristotle, 41.
  Sir Philip Sidney, Erasmus, Galen, 40.
  Retrospective Review, Kirk White, 40.
  Fuller, T., 41, 43.
  Stillingfleet, Ovid, 42.
  Swift, Plato, Whitaker, 43.
  Locke, 279, 337.
  Spencer, 397.
Regency at Cambridge, 173.
Regulation of the Habits, 241.
Religious Instruction, 189, 297, 308.
Reputation, or Esteem, 245.
Resewitz, 219.
Respect for others, 301.
Rest, 41.
Restitution, 367.
Retrospective Review, 38, 42.
Reverence, or Awe, of Parents, 241, 275.
  For Children, 256.
Reviews, 185.
Rewards in Discipline, 244.
Rhetoric, 184, 326.
Rich, System of Short-hand, 310.
Riding Horseback, 40, 63, 186, 222.
Rod, The, 55, 243, 260, 422.
Romans, Examples of Temperance, 232.
Rote Learning, Without Understanding, 112.
  Teaching, 372.
Roughness, 300.
Rule-teaching, 372.
Rules, few, 248.
Ruskin, 19.

Sackville, Sir R., 47, 54.
St. Anthony's Free School, 163.
St. John's College, Cambridge, 23
St. Paul's School, Milton at, 163.
Sauntering, 291.
Scaliger, 31.
Scholar, Marks of Promising, 61.
School and Teacher, in English Literature, 401.
  Fuller, T., 403.
  Goldsmith, O., 406.
  Lloyd, R., 408.
  Shenstone, 409.
  White, H. R., 420.
  Crabbe, G., 421, 455.
  Gray, T., 426.
  Hood, T., 465.
  Cowper, W., 432.
School Days and Plays, 442.
School-house, the House of Play, 46.
Schools of the Borough, by Crabbe, 455.
  For Infants, 455.
  Preparatory, 456.
  Day School, 457.
  Boarding School, 458.
    For Young Ladies, 458.
    For Boys, 459.
  College Life, 461.
  The Scholar and Literary Life, 462.
Schoolmaster, The Village, by Goldsmith, 406.
  Delille, 407.
  Gilfillan, 416.
  Hood, 465.
Schoolmaster, the Office of, how Esteemed, 61, 402

Schoolmaster, The, by Roger Ascham, 27, 45.
Preface, 44.
Annotations on, 51.
Book I. The Bringing up of Youth, 57.
General Manner and Temper required, 57.
The aim of all Good Culture, 57.
Quick Wits, and Slow, compared, 58.
Influence of excessive attention to Music, 59.
The Special Marks of Promise in a Child, 61.
1. Sound and comely Physique, 61.
2. Good Memory, 61.
3. Love of Learning, 61.
4. Eagerness to Labor, 62.
4. Readiness to receive from another, 62.
6. Boldness to ask for Knowledge, 62.
7. Love of Praise for well-doing, 62.
Motives to Study, Pleasure, and not Pain, 62.
Interview with Lady Jane Grey at Brodegate, 63.
Discipline enforced kindly but firmly, 64.
Dangers from excessive License to Young Men, 65.
Bad Example of the Nobility, 65.
Effects of Good Education of Youth illustrat'd, 66.
Learning by Book and at School, 67.
Exercise and Pastimes to be allowed, 68.
Influence of Good Example, 69.
Foreign Travel discouraged, 70.
Book II. The Ready Way to the Latin Tongue, 70.
Mode of Learning Rules of Grammar disc., 70.
Oral and Explanatory Method preferred, 70.
Double Translating from Latin into English and English into Latin, 71.
Pupils to be Aided and Encouraged, and not left in doubt, &c., 71.
Trying to speak Latin a questionable exercise, 72.
Discrimination of Parts of Speech, &c., 72.
Diligent Reading of the best Authors, 73.
Six ways for the Learning of Tongues and Increase of Eloquence, 74.
1. Translations, 74.
2. Paraphrase, 74.
3. Metaphrasis, 75.
4. Epitome, 76.
Schoolmistress, 416.
Shenstone, 409.
White, H. K., 420.
Burton, Warren, 416.
Marine Farmer, 419.
Crabbe, George, 421, 456.
Science in Education, 394.
Views of Milton, 151, 183.
Johnson, 151.
Mitford, 152.
Hartlib, 188.
Petty, 189, 208.
Cowley, 190.
Spencer, 388, 399.
Scripture, how Studied, 108, 330.
Sculpture and Education, 16.
Seed-time, 42.
Self-denial, 242.
Evolution, 386.
Government of Children, 371.
Instruction, 376.
Preservation, 389.
Seneca, 135, 272.
Serranus, 31.
Severity Unnecessary, 57, 250, 263.
Seven Liberal Arts, 177.
Shakspeare, Education Defined by, 11.
Short, Bishop, End of Education, 13.
Short-hand Writing, 310.
Sidney, Sir Philip, 40.
Singing, 43.
Silence and Solitude, Love of in Children, 136.
Sitting Still, 417.
Sizar, at Cambridge, 168.
Skill and Strength, 142.
Sleep, 235, 351.
Slowness of Development, 61, 133.
Smattering of Knowledge, 105.
Smith, Sir T., 55.
Treatise on English Spelling, 55.
Society, Education for, 253, 269, 308.
Science of, 392.
Socrates, on the average Capacity, 61.
Marks of a promising Scholar, 63.
1. Sound Body, 63.
2. Memory, quick and Retentive, 63.
3. Love of Learning, 64.
4. Love of Labor, 64.
5. Readiness to receive of another, 64.
6. Boldness to ask, 64.
7. Love of Praise for well-doing, 64.
What to learn, 152.
Sophisters at Cambridge, 172.
Sophocles, 49.
South, Dr., Power of Habits, 13.
Speaking, fluent, 76.
Spelling Reform, 55, 164.
Spencer, H., Thoughts on Education, 345.
1. Physical Education, 345.
Importance of Physical Training, 345.
Food, 345.
Sugar and Fruit, 346.
Quality, Quantity, and Variety of Food, 347.
Clothing, 348.
Exercise, 350.
Excess of Mental Activity, 351.
Health of the Brain, Supply of Good Blood, 352.
Results of Modern Physical Treatment, 355.
Preservation of Health, Duty, 355.
2. Moral Education, 356.
Special Preparation for Family Management, 356.
Nature's Law of Discipline, 358.
Examples of the Rule of Natural Reaction, 361.
Consequences of Obedi. to Parent and Child, 362, 369
True Relation of Parent and Child, 365.
How to deal with Grave Offences, 367.
Too much expected of Juvenile Good Conduct, 368.
Commands few, but Decisive and Consistent, 369.
Self-government the Aim of all Discipline, 370.
Right Government complex and difficult, 371.
3. Intellectual Education and Studies, 372.
Decline of Old Methods, 372.
Introduction of New Method, 373.
The Order and Method of Nature to be followed, 374
Guiding principles of Education, 375.
Application of Principle to Practice, 377.
Intuitional Exercise of the Perceptions, 377.
Object-lessons, 378.
A Mother's Unconscious Tuition on Objects, 379.
Extension of the field of Object-teaching, 380.
Value of a Love and a Knowledge of Nature, 381.
Drawing, including Form and Color, 381.
Dimensions in Perspective, 382.
Geometry, Primary, 383.
Empirical, 384.
Acquisition of Knowledge should be a process of self-instruction and continuous pleasure, 386.
4. What Knowledge is most Worth, 388.
Relative Values of Knowledge, 388.
Knowledge requisite to Self-preservation, 389.
Industrial Success, 389.
Mathematics, 390.
Physics, 391.
Chemistry, 391.
Biology, 392.
Science of Society, 392.
Rearing and discipline of the family Offspring, 393
Functions of the Citizen, 396.
Æsthetics, or Education for Relaxations, etc., 397.
Knowledge requisite for purposes of Discipline, 399
Prominent value of Science, 399.
Spirits, 297.
Spontaneous Activity of Children, 377.
Sporting, as Exercise, 44.
Stimulation of the Faculties, 252.
Story-books, Influence of, on Character, 117.
Stubbornness, 260.
Studies, calculated to mar some Minds, 28.
To be varied to the Peculiarities, 91.
Necessary to Life, 151, 272.
Trivium, 177.
Quadrivium, 177.

Studies, Essay on, by Bacon, 103.
Purposes of, 103.
Uses, defined by Experience, 103.
Books, how used, 103.
Adaptation to Peculiarities of Mind, 104.
Annotations on, by Whately, 104.
Sturmius, J., Letters to Ascham, 34.
Character of, 56.
Style, 327.
Sugar in Children's Diet, 346.
Swift, on Running for Exercise, 40.
Swimming, Fuller on, 44.
Locke, 229.

Tasks, Study not to be imposed as, 257.
Teaching, Value of, 49.
Limited by capacity and Industry, 151.
Teacher, 48, 265.
Telling and Doing, 376.
Temper, or Natural Inclination, 276.
Observed in Sports, 279.
Temperaments, Doctrine of, 134.
Tenderness, 227.
Thalassius, 35.
Theages, of Plato, 56.
Themes in Latin, 318.
Theology and Church History, 184.
Things, Study of, 207.
Time, an Element in Education, 137.
Timorousness, 285.
Tirocinium, or A Review of Schools, 436.
Dignity of Human Nature, Body and Soul, 436.
Natural World, and its love, 437.
Necessity of Early Culture, 438.
Heathen deities crowd out Christian Culture, 440.
Love of play-place and School-room, 441.
Picture of a Public School, 442.
Evils of Emulation, 444.
Filial Love and Confidence lost by Absence, 446.
A thoughtful, prayerful, accomplished Tutor, 447.
Domestic Education, 449.
Town and Gown, in Cambridge, 168.
Toxophilus, the Schole of Shootinge, 39.
Writing of, 39.
Active Amusements of Scholars, 40.
Relaxation and Pastimes Necessary, 41.
Fuller on Recreation, 43.
Tractable Disposition, 136.
Tractate on Education, by John Milton, 178.
Origin of, 178.
End of Learning, 179.
Errors of Modern Education, 180.
Plan of Academy, 181.
Building, 181.
1. Studies, 181.
2. Practical Exercises, 181.
3. Diet, 187.
Trades, School of, 203, 206.
To be Learned, Locke, 338.
History of, 204.
Translations, Value of Double, 29, 74, 315.
Travel, Ascham on, 70.
Wotton, 139.
Milton, 187.
Petty, 207.
Locke, 340.
Tricks at School, 255.
Triennium for Master of Arts, 174, 177.
Trivium, 177.
Truth, 298.
Tusser, T., 46.
Tutor, or Private Governor, 265, 272, 447.
Good Breeding, 267.
Knowledge of the World, 269.
Aim, 271.
Tyrant School-boy, 458.

Udel, N., Severity of, 46. 405.
University at Cambridge, 167.
University Exercises, 169.
University Orator, 24.
Usher, School, 408.

Versifying, 320.
Vice, Proclivity to, 255.
Vicious Inclinations, 284.
Village School and Teacher, English, 406, 409, 418.
French, 407.
Scotch, 416.
Irish, 406.
New England, 416. 419, 471.
Virtue, the valuable Part of Education, 14, 256, 297
Vitality expended in Growth, 355.

Walks in the Field, 42
Walton, Isaak, 40.
Memoir of Sir H. Wotton, 123.
Wants, Natural or Fanciful, 277.
Warmth, or Protection from Cold, 227.
What is Education? or Education Defined, 11.
Whately, Archbishop, 96, 104.
Nature of Education, 18, 100.
Force of Custom and Habit, 97.
Practice and Habit, 97.
Example of the Soldier, 98.
" " Partyman, 99.
Studies, 104.
Smattering of Knowledge, 105.
Knowledge of our own Ignorance, 106.
Study of the Scriptures, 108.
Deference to Masters in Studies, 111.
Differing kinds of Questioning, 112.
Learning by Rote, 113.
How to solve puzzling Difficulties, 114.
Mathematics, 114.
Poems, Tales, Fictions, 117.
Miss Edgworth's Moral Tales, 118.
Historical Studies, 119.
Travels, 120.
Political Economy, 120.
Use of Imagination, 121.
Pleasure Grounds of Knowledge, 121.
Whewell, W., Education defined by, 11.
Whichote, 13.
Whipping, at the University of Cambridge, 173
Ascham on, 55.
Locke, 263.
Layng, 422.
Wilson, 423.
Butler, Byron, 425.
Hood, 424, 465.
Wife, Lord Burleigh on choice of, 52.
Wilson, T., Author of the Birch, 424.
Will, of Children, 261.
Wingfield, Sir A., 23.
Wisdom, 299.
Wits, Quick and Slow, 59.
Woman, Health of, 350.
Education, 394.
Words, Learning of, 180.
World, Knowledge of, 269.
Worthington's Catechism, 309.
Wotton, Sir W., 12.
Memoir, 54, 123.
Provost of Eton College, 126.
Letter to Charles I., 128, 131.
Educational Apothegms, 131.
Characteristic Indications of the Scholar, 132.
Time, an Element in Education, 137.
Successful Beginnings, 138.
Epitomes and Commentaries, 138.
Discretion, a Gift and a Product, 138.
Value of Travel, 139.
Good Manners, a happy Man, 139.
Books to be estimated by Quality, not Quantity, 13
Formality, when excessive, suspicious, 140.
Applause should follow, not lead, 141.
Opportunity necessary to Success, 143.
Wrestling, 184, 335.
Writing, or Penmanship, 26, 309.
Wyse, T., 374, 383.

Young, T., Teacher of Milton, 162.
Youth, Excessive License to, 65.

VI. SIR THOMAS ELYOT

Sir Thomas Elyot, or Eliot, the author of "*The Governour*, and the translator into English of Plutarch's "*Education, or the bringing up of Children*," and by his various publications a worthy cultivator of the English language, was born in Devonshire about the year 1497. His father, Sir Richard Elyot, was made by King Henry VIII one of the justices of the King's Bench, and he appears to have been educated at St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, where he was admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1518, and in 1524 to the degree of Bachelor of Civil Law. After traveling on the Continent, he was introduced to the court of Henry VIII, who conferred on him the order of knighthood, and employed him in several embassies, particularly to Rome in 1532, and afterwards, about the year 1536, to the Emperor Charles V. He was much respected by men of learning, and numbered among his friends the famous antiquary Leland, and Sir Thomas More, although we are constrained to mention in this connection, that when suspected of a leaning to the Church of Rome, and a general inquisition was made for his Catholic books to burn, on the ground of this friendship with the great Chancellor, he protested that "the amity betwixt me and Sir Thomas was but 'usque ad aras,'" and "that I never was so much addicted unto him as I was unto truth and fidelity towards my sovereign lord." And in the same letter "to the Lord Crumwel" he desires to be brought "into the king's most noble remembrance, that of his most bounteous liberality it may like his highness to reward me with some convenient portion of the suppressed lands, whereby I may be able to continue my life according to that honest degree whereunto his grace has called me." Whether the priory estate of St. Germans, which became the residence of the Eliot family a few years later, was the fruit of this quasi-denial of the friendship of a man so truly great and good as Sir Thomas More, and of his eager sycophancy to a brutal monarch to share in the spoils of demolished churches, we know not. We would look for

better things from an author who can discourse so eloquently respecting justice and magnanimity as Sir Thomas does in his "Governour," although the fundamental doctrine of the book as to earthly government is—that "the best and the most sure government is by one king, or prince, who ruleth only for the weal of his people." He died in 1546, and was buried in the church of Carleton in Cambridgeshire, of which county he had been sheriff

The following list of Sir Thomas Elyot's publications is taken from the "*Biographia Britannica*:"—

I. The Castle of Health. London, 1541, 1572, 1580, 1595, &c., in 8vo.
II. "The Governor," in three books. London, 1544, 1547, 1580, &c., in 8vo.
III. Of the Education of Children. [Translated out of Plutarch.]
IV. "The Banquet of Sapience." London, in 8vo.
V. "De Rebus Memoralibus Angliæ," for the completing of which he had perused many old English monuments.
VI. A Defense or Apology for Good Women.
VII. Bibliotheca Eliotæ: "Elyot's Library or Dictionary." London, 1541, &c., folio; which work Cooper augmented and enriched with thirty-three thousand words and phrases, besides a fuller account of the true signification of words.

He translated likewise from Greek into English "The Image of Governance, compiled of the Acts and Sentences by the Emperor Alexander Severus." London, 1556, 1594, &c., in 8vo. And from Latin into English,—

1. "St. Cyprian's Sermon of the Mortality of Man."
2. "The Rule of a Christian Life," written by Pica, Earl of Mirandola. London, 1534, in 8vo. (Vide Wood Ath. Oxon. Vol. I., col. 67.)

To this list Ames adds "Doctrinall of Princes, translated out of Greke into Englishe," 1545.

The "Castle of Health" subjected him to much carping criticism from both the gentry and the faculty. It was thought to be a lowering of his rank to become a physician and to write a book on the science of physic, "which beseems not a knight;" but Sir Thomas, in the second edition, makes answer:—"That many kings and emperors, and other great princes, (whose names he there sets down, as Juba, Mithridates, Artemisia, &c.,) for the universal necessity and incomparable utility which they perceived to be in that science, did not only advance and honor it with special privileges, but also were therein studious themselves. And that it was no shame for a person of quality to write a book of the science of physic, any more than it was for King Henry VIII to publish a book of the science of grammar, which he had lately done." And "that his highness had not disdained to be the chief author and setter forth of an Introduction into Grammar for the Children of his subjects. Whereby, said he, having good masters, they shall easily and in short apprehend the understanding and form of speaking true and elegant Latin." For which he breaks out in praises of the king:—"O royal heart, full of very nobility! O noble breast," &c.

"Truly, if they call him a physician which is studious about the

weal of his country, I vouchsafe they so name me. For during my life I will in that affection continue." To the physicians who were offended because he intermeddled in their department and particularly that he should treat of medicine in English, he, in reply, condemned them for aiming to keep their art a secret, and claimed, "that before he was twenty years old, one of the most learned physicians in England read to him the works of Hippocrates, Galen, Oribasius, Paulus Celius, Alexander Trallianus, Discorides, and Joanicius." To these Sir Thomas added "the study of Avicen, Averroes, and many more. Therefore, though he had never been at Montpelier, Padua, or Salerno, yet he had found something in physic, by which he had experienced no little profit for his own health."

"THE GOVERNOUR."

"The Governour," although it was designed to instruct men, and especially men of noble birth, in good morals, and in the ways of usefulness, is not so much a treatise on Education as a contribution to the science of Political Ethics. It was dedicated to King Henry VIII, who, according to Strype, "read it and much liked it, making this observation:—That Sir Thomas Elyot intended to augment our English tongue, whereby men should as well express more abundantly things conceived in their breasts, (wherefore language was ordained,) having words apt for the purpose; as also interpret out of Greek, Latin, or any other tongues, into English, as sufficiently as out of any of the said tongues into another. The king observed also, that throughout the book, there was no new turn made by him of a Latin or French word, that no sentence throughout the said book was thereby made dark or hard to be understood."

GENERAL AIM AND PLAN OF THE TREATISE.

The author's general aim and plan, as set forth in the *Proheme* "unto the most noble and victorious prince, King Henry the Eighth," is "to describe in our vulgar tongue the form of a just Public Weal, which matter I have gathered, as well of the sayings of most noble authors, (Greek and Latin,) as by my own experience; I being continually trained in some daily affairs of the Public Weal, of this your most noble realm, almost from my childhood. Which attempt is not from presumption to teach any person, I myself having most need of teaching; but only to the intent that men, who will be studious about the Public Weal, may find the thing, thereto expedient, compendiously written. And forasmuch as this present book treateth of the education of them that hereafter may be deemed worthy to be governors of the Public Weal under your highness, (which Plato affirmeth to be the first and chief part of a Public Weal; Solomon saying also, where governors be not the people shall fall into ruin;) I therefore have named it "The Governour;" and do now dedicate it to your highness as the first fruits of my study; verily trusting that your most excellent wisdom will therein esteem my loyal heart and diligent endeavor, by the example of Artaxerxes, the noble King of Persia, who rejected not the poor husbandman, who offered to him his homely hands full of clean water, but most graciously received it with thanks, esteeming the present not after the value,

but rather according to the will of the giver. In like manner King Alexander retained with him the poet Cherilus honorably, for writing his history, although that the poet was but of small estimation; which that prince did not for lack of judgment, he being of excellent learning, as disciple of Aristotle, but to the intent that his liberality employed on Cherilus, should animate or give courage to others much better learned, to contend with him in a like enterprise."

The First Book opens with the following signification of a "Public Weal," which it is the object of the governor to promote:—

A Public Weal is a *body living* composed of many and sundry degrees of men, which is disposed by the order of men, which is disposed by the order of equity, and governed by the rule and moderation of reason. In the Latin language it is called Respublica, of the which the word Res has divers significations, doth not only betoken that which is called a thing, which is distinct from a person, but also signifieth estate, condition, substance, and profit.

So in this world, they who excel other in this influence of understanding, and do employ it to the detaining of other within the bounds of reason, and show them how to provide for their necessary living, such ought to be set in a more high place than the residue, where they may see, and also be seen, that by the beams of their excellent wit, showeth through the glass of authority, other of inferior understanding may be directed to the way of virtue and commodious living.

Wherefore to conclude, it is *only* a Public Weal, where, like as God hath disposed the said influence of understanding, are also appointed degrees and places, according to the excellence thereof, and thereto also would be substance convenient, and necessary, for the ornament of the same; which also impresseth a reverence and due obedience to the vulgar people or commonalty, and without that it can be no more said, that there is a Public Weal, than it may be affirmed, that a house without its proper and necessary ornaments, is well and sufficiently furnished.

The author favors that form of Public Weal as "the best and the most sure" in which "one king or prince ruleth only for the weal of his people," which he substantiates by an appeal to history, but he advocates the appointment by the sovereign governor of inferior magistrates on account of their excellent virtue and learning, and who have a competent substance to live without taking rewards, and to instruct and furnish their sons to follow them in the administration of the Public Weal. To this end he advises that the education of the governing class begin with the right selection of mother, nurse, and schoolmaster, and that the tender minds of children and youth should be kept clean of all vulgar or vicious sights or conversation, and be made familiar with high and ennobling objects.

SCARCITY OF GOOD SCHOOLMASTERS.

Sir Thomas Elyot devotes a chapter to "the chief impediments of excellent learning," viz., "for what cause at this day (1544) there be in this realm few perfect schoolmasters."

Good Lord! how many good and clean wits of children be now-a-days perished by ignorant schoolmasters, how little substantial doctrine is apprehended by the fewness of good grammarians! Notwithstanding I know that there be some well learned, who have taught and also do teach, but God knoweth a few, and they with small effect, having thereto no comfort; their aptest and most proper scholars, after they be well instructed in speaking Latin, and understanding some poets, being taken from their school by their parents, and either be brought to the court, made lacqueys or pages, or else are bound apprentices, whereby the worship that the master above any reward coveteth to have by the praise of his scholar, is utterly drowned. Whereof I have heard schoolmasters very well learned, of good right, complain. But yet (as I said) the fewness of

good grammarians is a great impediment of doctrine. And here I would the readers should mark, that I note to be few good grammarians, and not none. I call not them grammarians, who can only teach or make rules, whereby a child shall only learn to speak good Latin, or to make six verses standing in one foot, wherein perchance shall be neither sentence nor eloquence. But I name him a grammarian by the authority of Quinctilian, that speaking of Latin elegantly, can expound good authors, expressing the invention and disposition of the matter, their style or form of eloquence, explicating the figures, as well of sentences as words, leaving nothing, person or place named by the author, undeclared or hidden from his scholars. Wherefore Quinctilian saith, it is not enough for him to have read poets, but all kinds of writing must also be sought for, not for the histories only, but also for the property of words, which commonly do receive their authority of noble authors. Moreover, without music, grammar may not be perfect; forasmuch as therein must be spoken of metres and harmonies, called rythm in Greek. Neither if he have not the knowledge of stars, he may understand poets, who in description of time (I omit other things) they treat of the rising and going down of planets. Also he may not be ignorant in philosophy, for many places that be almost in every poet, fetched out of the most subtle part of natural questions. These be well nigh the words of Quinctilian. Then behold how few grammarians, after this description, be in this realm.

Undoubtedly there be in this realm many well learned, which if the name of a schoolmaster were not so much had in contempt, and also if their labors with abundant salaries might be requited, were right sufficient and able to induce their hearers to excellent learning, so they be not plucked away green, and ere they be in doctrine sufficiently rooted. But now-a-days, if to a bachelor or master of arts study of philosophy waxeth tedious, if ye have a spoonful of Latin, he will show forth a hog's head without any learning, and offer to teach grammar, and expound noble writers; and to be in the room of a master, he will, for a small salary, set a false color of learning on proper wits, which will be washed away with one shower of rain.

Some men peradventure do think, that at the beginning of learning it forceth not although the masters have not so exact doctrine as I have rehearsed, but let them take good heed what Quinctilian saith. It is so much the better to be instructed by them that are best learned, forasmuch as it is difficult to put out of the mind that which is once settled, the double burden being painful to the masters who shall succeed, and verily much more to unteach than to teach. Wherefore it is written, that Timothy, the noble musician, demanded alway a greater reward of them whom other had taught, than of them that never any thing learned. These be the words of Quinctilian or like.

Also the common experience teacheth that no man will put his son to a butcher to learn, or bind him apprentice to a tailor. Or if he will have him a cunning goldsmith, will bind him first apprentice to a tinker. In these things poor men be circumspect, and the nobles and gentlemen, who would have their sons by excellent learning come unto honor, for sparing of cost, or for lack of diligent search for a good schoolmaster, willfully destroy their children, causing them to be taught that learning which would require six or seven years to be forgotten, by which time the more part of that age is spent wherein is the chief sharpness of wit, (called in Latin *acumen*,) and also then approacheth the stubborn age, where the child brought up in pleasure disdaineth correction.

MUSIC.

"The Governour" commends with some limitations that the future magistrates of the land acquire a mastery of music, both vocal and instrumental, that it may serve "for recreation after tedious or laborious affairs," and he cites with approbation the choice of Alexander—after the conquest of Ilium—"to see, not the harp of Paris where he allured the wanton pleasures of love, but the harp of Achilles whereto the valiant acts and noble affairs of excellent princes were duly celebrated." "A wise and circumspect tutor will adapt the pleasant science to a necessary and laudable purpose."

PAINTING AND CARVING—POETRY AND ORATORY.

In the chapter on Painting and Carving "The Governour," in striving to show that "it is commendable for a gentleman to paint and carve exactly," anticipates the arguments which are now used to introduce Drawing and attention to the Fine Arts, and generally the culture of the esthetical part of our nature, in our systems of school or formal instruction.

If the child be of nature inclined (as many have been) to paint with a pen, or to form images in stone or tree, he should not be therefrom withdrawn, or nature be rebuked, which is to him benevolent; but putting one to him, which is in that craft, wherein he delighteth, most excellent, in vacant times from other more serious learning, he should be in the most purewise instructed in painting or carving. And now, perchance, some envious reader will hereof take occasion to scorn me, saying that I had well hied me, to make of a nobleman a maison or painter. And yet if either ambition or voluptuous idleness would have suffered that reader to have seen histories, he should have found excellent princes, as well in painting as in carving, equal to noble artificers. Such were Cladius Titus, the son of Vespasian, Adrian, both Antonines, and divers other emperors and noble princes, whose works of long time remained in Rome and other cities, in such places where all men might behold them; as monuments of their excellent wits and virtuous occupation in eschewing of idleness. And not without a necessary cause princes were in their childhood so instructed; for it served them afterward for devising of engines for the war; or for the making them better that be already devised. For as Vitruvius (which writeth of building to the Emperor Augustus) saith, all torments of war, which we call engines, were first invented by kings or governors of hosts, or if they were devised by other, they were by them made much better.

Also by the feat of portraiture or painting, a captain may describe the country of his adversary, whereby he shall eschew the dangerous passages with his host or navy; also perceiving the places of advantage, the form of embattling of his enemies, the situation of his camp, for his greatest surety or weakness of the town or fortress which he intendeth to assault. And that which is most specially to be considered, in visiting his own dominions, he shall set them out in figure, in such wise, that at his eye shall appear to him where he shall employ his study and treasure, as well for the safeguard of his country, as for the commodity and honor thereof, having at all times in his sight the surety and feebleness, advancement and hinderance of the same. And what pleasure and also utility is to a man, who intendeth to edify himself to express the figure of the work that he purposeth, according as he hath conceived it in his own fantasy, wherein, by often amending and correcting, he finally shall so perfect the work unto his purpose, that there shall neither ensue any repentance, nor in the employment of his money he shall be by other deceived. Moreover the feat of portraiture shall be an allurement to every other study or exercise. For the wit thereto disposed shall alway covet congruent matter wherein it may be occupied. And when he happeneth to read or hear any fable or history, forthwith he apprehendeth it more dextrously, and retaineth it better than any other that lacketh the said feat; by reason that he hath found matter apt to his fantasy. Finally, every thing that portraiture may comprehend will be to him delectable to read or hear. And where the lively spirit, and that which is called the grace of the thing, is perfectly expressed, that thing more persuadeth and steereth the beholder, and sooner instructeth him, than the declaration in writing or speaking doth the reader or hearer. Experience we have thereof in learning of geometry, astronomy, and cosmography, called in English the description of the world. In which studies, I dare affirm, a man shall more profit in one week by figures and charts well and perfectly made, than he shall by the only reading or hearing the rules of that science, by the space of half a year at the least. Wherefore the late writers deserve no small commendation who added to the authors of those sciences apt and proper figures. And he that is perfectly instructed in portraiture, and happeneth to read any noble and excellent history, whereby his courage is inflamed to the imitation of virtue, he forth-

with taketh his pen or pencil, and with a grave and substantial study, gathering to him all the parts of imagination, endeavoreth himself to express actually in portraiture not only the fact or affair, but also the sundry affections of every personage in the history recited, which might in any wise appear or be perceived in their visage, countenance, or gesture; with like diligence as Lysippus made in metal King Alexander fighting and struggling with a terrible lion of incomparable magnitude and fierceness; whom, after long and difficult battle, with wonderful strength and clean might, at the last be overthrown and vanquished. Wherein he so expressed the similitude of Alexander, and of his lords standing about him, that they all seemed to live. Among whom the prowess of Alexander appeared excelling all other, the residue of his lords after the value and estimation of their courage, every man set out in such forwardness, as they then seemed more prompt to the helping of their master, that is to say, one less afraid than another.

Phidias, the Athenian, whom all writers do commend, made of ivory the image of Jupiter, honored by the Gentiles on the high hill of Olympus; which was done so excellently that Pandenus, a cunning painter, thereat marveling, required the craftsman to show him where he had the example or pattern of so noble a work. Then Phidias answered, that he had taken it out of their verses of Homer, the poet; the sentence whereof ensueth as well as my poor wit can express it in English:—

"Than Jupiter, the father of them all,
Thereto assented with his brows black,
Slacking his ear, therewith did let fall
A countenance, that made all heaven to quake."

Sir Thomas defends the reading of the ancient poets and orators, although there are many things even to offend the tastes and corrupt the imagination, unless the wise tutor guards against these results by timely interposition, explanation, and antidotes, and especially by withdrawing his pupils' minds to other studies, and especially to moral and political philosophy.

But in defending of orators and poets, I had almost forgotten where I was. Verily there may no man be an excellent poet nor orator, unless he have part of another doctrine, especially of noble philosophy. And to say the truth, no men can apprehend the very delight that is in the lesson of noble poets, unless he have read very much, and in divers authors of divers learnings. Wherefore, as I lately said, to the augmentation of understanding (called in Latin *Intellectus et mens*) is required to be much reading, and vigilant study in every sentence, especially of that part of philosophy named moral, which instructeth men in virtue and political governing. Also no noble author, especially of them that wrote in Greek or Latin, is not for any cause to be omitted. For therein I am of Quinctilian's opinion, that there is few or no ancient work that yieldeth not some fruit or commodity to the diligent reader.

The author adds by the way of caution, that the reading of poets and orators, and "all other pure and excellent learning, though it be sown in a child never so timely, and springeth up and buddeth never so pleasantly, unless the same take deep root in the mind and be incorporated into his habits of thought, will vanish and come to nothing;" and he particularly protests against "putting children at the age of fourteen or fifteen years to the study of the laws of the realm of England;" as well as denying to those children who have a capacity for elegant and useful studies and arts, an opportunity of pursuing the same in preference to the law. "For how many men be there whose sons in childhood are aptly disposed by nature to paint, carve, or grave, to embroider, or do other like things wherein is any art commendable concerning invention, which, as soon as they espy it, be therewith displeased, and forthwith bindeth them apprentices to tailors, weavers, and sometimes to cobblers! which hath been the inestimable loss of many good wits, and hath caused that in the said arts En-

glishmen be inferiors to all other people, and be constrained, if we will have any thing well painted, carved, or embroidered, to leave our own countrymen, and resort unto strangers." "If children were brought up in the right study until they were passed the age of twenty-one years and then set to the laws of this realm, being reduced to good English, Latin, or French, they would become men of so excellent wisdom and most noble counselors, to be surpassed in no common weal throughout the world—our laws being gathered and compacted of the pure meal or flour sifted out of the best laws in all other countries." After citing the experience of other men, the author falls back on the example of Cicero.

In like manner Tully, in whom it seemeth that eloquence hath set his glorious throne most richly and preciously adorned for all men to wonder at, but no man to approach it, was not let from being an incomparable orator, nor was by the exact knowledge of other sciences withdrawn from pleading infinite causes before the senate and judges, they being of most weighty importance. Insomuch as Cornelius Tacitus, an excellent orator, historian, and lawyer, saith:—"Surely in the books of Tully men may discern that in him lacked not the knowledge of geometry, nor music, nor grammar, finally, of no manner of art that was honest he of logic perceived the subtlety, of that part that was moral all the commodity, and of all things the chief motions and causes." And yet for all this abundance, and as it were a granary heaped with all manner of sciences, there failed not in him substantial learning in the laws civil, as it may appear as well in the books which he himself made of laws, as also, and most especially, in many of his most eloquent orations; which, if one well learned in the laws of this realm, did cede and understand, he should find, especially in his orations called Actiones against Verres, many places where he should espy by likelihood the fountains from whence proceedeth divers grounds of our common laws.

Moreover, when young men have read laws expounded in the orations of Tully, and also in histories of the beginning of laws, and in the works of Plato, Xenophon, and Aristotle, of the diversities of laws and Public Weals, if nature (as I late said) will dispose them to that manner of study, they shall be thereto the more incensed, and come unto it the better prepared and furnished. And they whom nature thereto moveth have not only saved all that time which many now-a-days do consume in idleness, but also have won such a treasure whereby they shall alway be able to serve honorably their prince; the Public Weal of their country principally, if they confer all their doctrines to the most noble study of moral philosophy, which teacheth both virtuous manners and civil policy; whereby at the last we should have in this realm sufficiency of worshipful lawyers, and also a Public Weal equivalent to the Greeks or Romans.

MUSCULAR EXERCISES NECESSARY FOR EVERY GENTLEMAN.

Although "The Governour" commends learning in gentlemen, it thinks "continual study, without some manner of exercise, shortly exhausteth the spirits vital, and hindereth natural decoction and digestion," whereby man's body is corrupted and weakened, and his life shortened. "Contrariwise by exercise, the health is preserved and strength increased, the spirits made strong, the appetite quickened, and all parts of the body nourished by the rapid assimilation of food." And in this connection it urges that tutors hold these general principles in remembrance, and put them in frequent practice both such as admit of outdoor as well indoor application. Of the latter it commends "laboring with poises made of lead, or other metal, called *Alteres*, lifting or throwing the heavy stone or bar, and similar exercises." It exhorts tutors and pupils to read Galen on the governance of health, both in the original and in the translation into Latin by Dr. Linacre. Of those exercises which at once are recreating,

adapt the body to hardness, strength, and agility, and provide for the exigences of peace and war, it speaks more at length.

Wrestling.

Wrestling is a very good exercise in the beginning of youth, so that it be with one that is equal in strength, or somewhat under, and that the place be soft, that in falling their bodies be not bruised. There be divers manners of wrestlings, but the best, as well for health of body, as for exercise of strength, is, when laying their hands mutually over one another's neck with the other hand, they hold fast each other by the arm, and clasping their legs together, they enforce themselves with strength and agility, and throw down each other, which is also praised by Galen. And undoubtedly it shall be found profitable in wars, in case that a captain shall be constrained to cope with his adversary hand to hand, having his weapon broken or lost. Also it hath been seen that the weaker person, by the sleight of wrestling, hath overthrown the stronger almost ere he could fasten on the other any violent stroke.

Running.

Running is both a good exercise and a laudable solace. It is written of Epaminondas, the valiant captain of Thebans, (who as well in virtue and prowess, as in learning, surmounteth all noblemen of his time,) that daily he exerciseth himself in the morning with running and leaping, in the evening in wrestling, to the intent that likewise in armor he might the more strongly, embracing his adversary, put him in danger. And also that in the chase, running and leaping, he might either overtake his enemy, or being pursued, if extreme need be required, escape him.

In like manner before him did the worthy Achilles, for whilst his ships lay at road, he suffereth not his people to slumber in idleness, but daily exercise them and himself in running, wherein he was most excellent and passed all other; and therefore Homer throughout all his work calleth him swift-footed Achilles.

The great Alexander, being a child, excelleth all his companions in running. Wherefore, on a time, one demanded of him if he would run at the great game of Olympus whereto, out of all parts of Greece, came the most active and valiant persons to essay the mastery. Whereunto Alexander answereth in this form:—"*I would very gladly run there if I were sure to run with kings;* for if I *should contend with a private person, having respect to our both estates, our victories should not be equal.*"

Needs must running be taken for a laudable exercise, since one of the most noble captains of all the Romans took his name from running, and was called Papirius Cursor, which is in English Papirius, the Runner. And also the valiant Marius, the Roman, when he had been seven times consul, and was of the age of fourscore years, exercised himself daily among the young men of Rome in such wise, that there resorted people out of far parts to behold the strength and agility of that old consul, wherein he compared with the young and lusty soldiers.

Swimming.

There is an exercise which is right profitable in extreme danger of wars, but because there seemeth to be some peril in the learning thereof, and also it hath not been of long time much used, especially among noblemen, perchance some readers will little esteem it, I mean swimming. But notwithstanding, if they revolve the imbecility of our nature, the hazards and danger of battle, with the examples which shall hereafter be showed, they will (I doubt not) think it as necessary to a captain or man of arms as any that I have yet rehearsed. The Romans, who above all things had most in estimation martial prowess, had a large and spacious field, without the city of Rome, which was called Marcus' field, in Latin Campus Martius, wherein the youth of the city was exercised. This field adjoined to the river of Tiber, to the intent that as well men as children should wash and refresh them in the water after their labors, as also learn to swim. And not men only but also the horses; that by such usage they should more aptly and boldly pass over great rivers, and be more able to resist,

or cut the waves, and be not afraid of great storms. For it hath been often times seen, that by the good swimming of horses many men have been saved; and contrariwise, by a timorous rule, where the water hath come to his belly, his legs have faltered, whereby many a good and proper man hath perished.

[The advantages of this art is illustrated by the experience of Horatius Cocles, of Julius Cæsar, of Sertorius, and other great captains.]

Riding.

But the most honorable exercise in mine opinion, and that beseemeth the estate of every noble person, is to ride surely and clean on a great horse and a rough, which undoubtedly not only importeth a majesty and dread to inferior persons beholding him above the common course of other men daunting a fierce and cruel beast, but also is no little succor, as well in pursuit of enemies and confounding them, as in escaping imminent danger when wisdom thereto exhorteth. Also a strong and hardy horse doth sometime more damage under his master than he with all his weapons; and also setteth forward the stroke, and causeth it to light with more violence.

Bucephalus, the horse of great King Alexander, who suffered none on his back save only his master, at the battle of Thebes, being sore wounded, would not suffer the king to depart from him to any other horse, but persisting in his furious courage, wonderfully continued out the battle, with his teeth and feet beating down and destroying many enemies; and many similar marvels of his strength he showed. Wherefore, Alexander, after the horse was slain, made, in remembrance of him, a city in the country of India, and called it Bucephala, in perpetual memory of so worthy a horse which in his life had so well served him.

What wonderful enterprise did Julius Cæsar achieve by the help of his horse! which not only did excel all other horses in fierceness and swift running, but also was in some parts different from other horses in figure, having his forehoofs like the feet of a man. And in that figure Pliny writeth that he saw him carved before the temple of Venus.

Hunting.

Cyrus and other ancient kings of Persia (as Xenophon writeth) used this manner in all their hunting. First, whereas it seemeth there was in the realm of Persia but one city which, as I suppose, was called Persepolis; there were the children of the Persians, from their infancy unto the age of seventeen years, brought up in the learning of justice and temperance, and also to observe continence in meat and drink; insomuch that whithersoever they went they took with them for their sustenance but only bread and herbs, called cresses, in Latin *Nasturtium;* and for their drink a dish to take water out of the rivers as they passed. Also they learned to shoot and to cast the dart or javelin. When they came to the age of seventeen years, they were lodged in the palaces that were there ordained for the king and his nobles, which was as well for the safeguard of the city, as for the example of temperance that they daily had at their eyes given to them by the nobles; who also might be called peers by the signification of the Greek word wherein they were called *Omotimi.* Moreover they were accustomed to rise alway in the first spring of the day, and patiently to sustain alway both cold and heat; and the king did see them exercised in going and also in running. And when he intended, in his own person, to hunt, which he did commonly every month, he took with him the one-half of the company of young men that were in the palaces. Then took every man with him his bow and quiver with arrows, his sword, a little target, and two darts. The bow and arrows served to pursue beasts that were swift, and the darts to assail them and all other beasts. And when their courage was chafed, or that by the fierceness of the beast they were in danger, then force constrained them to strike with the sword, and to have good eye at the violent assault of the beast, and to defend them, if need were, with their targets, wherein they accounted to be the truest and most certain meditation of wars. And to this hunting the king did conduct them; and he himself first hunted such beasts as

he happened to encounter. And when he had taken his pleasure, he then with most diligence set others forward, beholding who hunted valiantly, and reforming them whom he saw negligent or slothful. But ere they went forth to this hunting they dined competently; and during their hunting they dined no more. For if, by any occasion, their hunting continued above one day, they took the said dinner for their supper; and the next day, if they killed no game, they hunted until supper time: accounting these two days but for one. And if they took any thing they eat it at their supper with joy and pleasure. If nothing were killed they eat only bread and cresses, as I before rehearsed, and drank thereto water. And if any man will dispraise this diet, let him think what pleasure there is in bread to him that is hungry; and what delight is in drinking water in him that is thirsty. Surely this manner of hunting may be called a necessary solace and pastime, for therein is the very imitation of battle. For not only it doth show the courage and strength, as well of the horse as of him that rideth, traversing over mountains and valleys, encountering and overthrowing great and mighty beasts, but also it increaseth in them both agility and quickness, also sleight and policy to find such passages and straits where they may prevent or entrap their enemies. Also, by continuance therein, they shall easily sustain travel in wars, hunger and thirst, cold and heat. Hitherto be the words of Xenophon, although I have not set them in like order as he wrote them.

"The Governour," while citing the example of ancient worthies, such as Theseus, Hercules, Alexander, &c., in hunting lions and other wild animals, thanks God that such beasts, fierce and savage, no longer abound in the realms of Britain, but that noblemen must be content to hunt the deer and fox, but to do it in somewise as well.

I dispraise not the hunting of the fox with running hounds, but it is not to be compared to the other hunting in commodity of exercise. Therefore it would be used in the deep winter when the other game is unseasonable. Hunting of the hare with grayhounds is a right good solace for men that be studious, or them to whom nature hath not given personage or courage apt for the wars. And also for gentlewomen who fear neither sun nor wind for impairing their beauties. And peradventure they shall be thereat less idle than they should be at home in their chambers.*

Killing of deer with bows or grayhounds serveth well for the pot, (as is the common saying,) and therefore it must of necessity be sometime used. But it containeth therein no commendable solace or exercise, in comparison to the other form of hunting, if it be diligently perceived.

As for hawking I can find no notable remembrance that it was used of ancient time among noble princes. I call ancient time before a thousand years passed, since which time virtue and nobleness hath rather decayed than increased. Nor I could never know who found first that disport. Pliny maketh mention in his seventh book of the history of nature, that in the parts of Greece called Thracia, men and hawks, as it were by a confederacy, took birds together in this wise. The men sprang the birds out of the bushes, and the hawks, soaring over them, beat them down so that the men might easily take them. And then did the men share equally the prey with the falcons, which, being well served, eftsoons and of a custom repaired to such places where, being aloft, they perceived men to that purpose assembled.

By which rehearsal of Pliny we may conjecture that from Thrace came this sport of hawking. And I doubt not but many other as well as I have seen a like experience of wild hobies, which, in some countries that be champaign, will soar and lie aloft, hovering over larks and quails, and keep them down on the ground; whilst they who await on the prey do take them. But in what wise, or wheresoever the beginning of hawking was, surely it is a right delectable solace, though thereof cometh not so much utility (concerning exercise) as there doth of hunting. But I would our falcons might be satisfied with the division of their prey, as the falcons of Thrace were, that they need not to devour the hens of this realm in such number, that unless it be shortly considered,

* Herein "The Governour" (Sir Thomas) differs from "The Schoolmaster," (Ascham,) who commends Lady Jane Grey for staying at home to read Plato, instead of following the hunt.

and that falcons be brought to a more homely diet, it is right likely, that within a short space of years, our familiar poultry shall be as scarce as be now partridges and pheasants. I speak not this in dispraise of the falcons, but of them who keep them like cockneys. The mean gentlemen and honest householders who care for the gentle entertainment of their friends, do find their dish that I say truth, and noblemen shall right shortly espy it, when they come suddenly to their friend's house unprovided for lack of long warning.

But now to return to my purpose. Undoubtedly hawking, moderately used, and for a pastime, giveth to a man good appetite for his supper. And at the leastway withdraweth him from other dalliance or disports dishonest, and to body and soul perchance pernicious.

Dancing.

I am not of that opinion that all dancing generally is repugnant unto virtue, although some persons excellently learned, especially divines, so do affirm it; who alway have in their mouths (when they come into the pulpit) the saying of the noble doctor, St. Augustine:—"That better it were to delve or go to plough on the Sunday than to dance." Which might be spoken of that kind of dancing which was used in the time of St. Augustine, when every thing with the empire of Rome declined from its perfection, and the old manner of dancing was forgotten, and none remained but that which was lascivious, and corrupted the minds of them that danced, and provoked sin, as in like manner some do at this day. Also at that time idolatry was not clearly extinct, but divers fragments thereof remained in every region. And perchance solemn dances, which were celebrated unto the Paynim's false gods, were yet continued, forasmuch as the pure religion of Christ was not in all places consolidated, and the pastors and curates did wink at such recreations, fearing if they should hastily have removed it, and induced suddenly the severity of God's laws, they should stir the people thereby to a general sedition, to the imminent danger and subversion of Christ's holy religion late sown among them, and not yet sufficiently rooted. But the wise and discreet doctor, St. Augustine, using the art of an orator, wherein he was right excellent, omitting all rigorous menace or terror, dissuaded them by the most easy way from that manner of ceremony belonging to idolatry, preferring before it bodily occupation, thereby aggravating the offense to God that was in that ceremony, since occupation, which is necessary for man's sustenance and in due times virtuous, is notwithstanding prohibited to be used on the Sundays. And yet in these words of this noble doctor is not so general dispraise of all dancing as some men do suppose. And that for two causes, first in his comparison he preferreth not before dancing, or joineth thereto any vicious exercise, but annecteth it with tilling and digging of the earth, which be labors incident to man's living, and in them is contained nothing that is vicious. Wherefore the preëminence thereof above dancing, qualifying the offense, they being done out of due time, that is to say, in an holy day, concludeth not dancing to be at all times and in every manner unlawful or vicious, considering that in certain cases of extreme necessity men might both plough and delve without doing to God any offense.

"The Governour" is both eloquent and copious in his defense of this pastime and accomplishment, drawing his argument from both sacred and profane history, and making this exercise, which he exalts to a Fine Art, serve the purpose of health and morals.

As I have already affirmed, the principal cause of this my little enterprise is to declare an induction or means whereby children of gentle nature or disposition may be trained into the way of virtue with a pleasant facility. And forasmuch as it is very expedient that there be mixed with study some honest and moderate sport, or at least recreation, to recomfort and quicken the vital spirits, lest they, long laboring or being much occupied in contemplation or remembrance of things grave and serious, might happen to be fatigued, or perchance oppressed. And therefore Tully, who never found any vacant time from study, permitteth, in his first book of Offices, that men may use play and disport; yet notwithstanding in such wise as they do use sleep and other manner of quiet when they

have sufficiently disposed earnest matters and of weighty importance. Now because there is no pastime to be compared to that wherein may be found both recreation and meditation of virtue; I have, among all honest pastimes wherein is exercise of the body, noted dancing to be of an excellent utility, comprehending in it wonderful figures (which the Greeks do call Idea) of virtues and noble qualities, and especially of the commodious virtue called prudence, which Tully defineth to be the knowledge of things which ought to be desired and followed; and also of them which ought to be fled from and eschewed. And it is named of Aristotle the mother of virtues, of other philosophers it is called the captain or mistress of virtues, of some the housewife, forasmuch as by her diligence she doth investigate and prepare places apt and convenient where other virtues shall execute their powers or offices. Wherefore, as Solomon saith, like as in water be showed the visages of them that behold it, so unto men that be prudent the secret of mens' hearts be openly discovered. This virtue being so commodious to man, and as it were the porch of the noble palace of man's reason whereby all other virtues shall enter, it seemeth to me right expedient, that as soon as opportunity may be found, a child or young man be thereto brought up. And because that the study of virtue is tedious for the more part to them that do flourish in young years, I have devised how, in the form of dancing now late used in this realm among gentlemen, the whole description of this virtue, prudence, may be found out and well perceived as well by the dancers as by them who, standing by, will be diligent beholders and markers, having first mine instruction surely graven in the table of their remembrance. Wherefore all they that have their courage stirred toward true honor or perfect nobility, let them approach to this pastime, and either themselves prepare them to dance, or else at the least way behold with watching eyes others that can dance truly, keeping just measure and time. But to the understanding of this instruction they must mark well the sundry motions and measures which in true form of dancing is to be especially observed.

With an ingenuity truly admirable "The Governour" argues for a pastime of which he was evidently very fond, and of a personal accomplishment in which he doubtless excelled, as a school not only of "courtesy" but of that well balanced moderation between celerity and slowness which he designates *maturity*, and also of "Circumspection," of "Industry," of "Modesty," of "Liberality," and of "Mansuetude."

The First Book concludes with a few remarks on other exercises which may be moderately used as an antidote for idleness, which he defines to be not only a vacation from labor but an omission of all honest exercise. He praises the industry of the king of Persia, "who, in a time vacant from the affairs of his realm, planted innumerable trees, which long before he died brought forth abundance of fruit;" but denounces any playing at dice or any form of gambling as the invention of Lucifer and the parent of all the vices, which he illustrates as usual by historic references. He commends "chess of all games wherein is no bodily exercise, for therein is right subtle ingenuity, whereby the wit is made more sharp and remembrance quickened."

But the crowning exercise, on account "of sundry utilities" connected therewith as well as for diversion, is "shooting in a long bow," or the practice of the "noble art of archery." "For in drawing of a bow he doth moderately exercise his arms and the other part of his body; and if his bow be bigger he must add to more strength, wherein is no less valiant exercise than in any other whereof Galen writeth. In shooting at buts, or broad arrow marks, is a mediocrity of exercise of the lower part of the body and legs by going a little distance at a measurable pace. At rovers or pricks, it is at his pleasure that shooteth how fast or softly he listeth to go; and yet is the praise of the shooter neither more nor less, for as far or nigh the mark is his arrow when he goeth softly as when he runneth."

As compared with archery, neither tenis, bowling, clayshe, (or claisse,) pins, or quoiting, can be as much commended. The two last, as well as foot-ball, "are to be utterly rejected," because "of the beastly fury and extreme violence" with which these games are pursued, "and the hurts and consequent rancor which these engender."

Also in shooting is a double utility, wherein it excelleth all other exercises and games incomparably. The one is, that it is and alway hath been the most excellent artillery for wars, whereby this realm of England hath been not only best defended from outward hostility, but also in other regions a few English archers have been seen to prevail against people innumerable. Also won impregnable cities, strongholds, and kept them in the midst of the strength of their enemies. This is the feat whereby Englishmen have been most dreaded and had in estimation with outward princes, as well enemies as allies. And the commodity thereof hath been approved as far as Jerusalem, as it shall appear in the lives of Richard the First, and Edward the First, kings of England, who made several journeys to recover that holy city of Jerusalem into the possession of Christian men, and achieved them honorably the rather by the power of this feat of shooting.

The premises considered, O what cause of reproach shall the decay of archers be to us now living! yet what irreparable damage either to us or them in whose time need of similar defense shall happen, which decay, though we already perceive, fear and lament, and for the restoring thereof cease not to make ordiances, good laws, and statutes; yet who effectually putteth his hand to continual execution of the same laws and provisions? or beholding them daily broken winketh not at the offenders? But I shall hereof more speak in another place, and return now to the second utility found in shooting in the long bow, which is killing of deer, wild fowl, and other game, wherein is both profit and pleasure above any other artillery.

And verily I suppose, that before cross-bows and hand-guns were brought into this realm by the sleight of our enemies, to the intent to destroy the noble defense of archery, continual use of shooting in the long bow made the feat so perfect and exact among Englishmen, that they then as surely and soon killed such game which they listed to have, as they now can do with the cross-bow or gun. But this sufficeth for the declaration of shooting, whereby it is sufficiently proved, that it incomparably excelleth all other exercise, pastime, or solace.

The SECOND BOOK of "The Governour" is devoted to the dignities and amenities which constitute the manners of those who attain to the governance of a Public Weal. The first place is given to reverence and obedience to Almighty God from whom proceedeth all honor, and against whom neither noble progeny, succession, nor election can stand. And citing the reproof of Samuel to Saul, who had, contrary to the express command of God, kept the spoils of the enemy as a solemn sacrifice, and under that pretext tried to cover up his own pride, he affirms the great doctrine—"Better is obedience than sacrifice." This is followed by chapters on Personal Dignity and Considerate Utterance, Apparel, Residence, Affability, and Liberality.

The THIRD BOOK is devoted to the cultivation of the virtues of Justice, Faith, Fortitude, Patience, Magnanimity, Abstinence, Continence, Wisdom, Executive Ability, and Deference to the Ability and Experience of others; and we can close our very brief review and imperfect analysis of this early contribution to the educational department of English literature in the language of the author—"Children and youth instructed and trained in such form as in this book is declared shall seem to all men worthy to be in authority, honor, and nobleness."

VII. WILLIAM OF WYKEHAM AND ST. MARY'S COLLEGE

AT WINCHESTER.

WILLIAM WYKEHAM, or William Long of Wykeham, the founder and endower of the two great colleges of St. Mary of Winchester in Oxford, (commonly known as New College,) and St. Mary's College in Winchester, the latter the nursery of the former, was born at Wykeham in Hampshire, in 1324, in the eighteenth year of the reign of Edward II. The names of his father and mother (as well as the month and day of his birth) are not known; but his parents were of good reputation and character, although in such narrow circumstances as not to be able to give the son a liberal education. This greater boon than that of birth—which Wykeham expressed in a motto, that has since his day become celebrated, "Manners makyth man"—was supplied by Nicholas Uvedale, lord of the manor of Wykeham, and governor of Winchester Castle, an officer of great note in those days, who maintained him at the High School in Winchester, (which was as old at least as the days of King Egbert,) and afterwards took him into his family as his secretary. By Uvedale he was introduced to Edyngdon, Bishop of Winchester, and by both to King Edward III.

Whatever may have been his social condition or education, Wykeham possessed talents and executive ability which were equal to every exigency of his fortunate career. In May, 1356, he was made clerk of all the king's works in his manors of Henle and Yeshampsted, and in October following he was made the king's surveyor for the castle and park of Windsor, and superintended the rebuilding of that magnificent residence, as well as of Queenborough Castle in the Isle of Sheppy. During this period he was continuing his clerical studies, and was admitted acolyte in December, 1361, subdeacon in the March following, and ordained priest in June, 1362. In June, 1363, he was made warden and justiciary of the king's forest, and in 1364, keeper of the privy seal, and in 1366, secretary of the king. In 1365, he was one of a commission (consisting of the chancellor, treasurer, and the Earl of Arundel) to treat

of the ransom of the King of Scotland and the prolonging of the truce with the Scots, and in 1367 he was consecrated Bishop of Winchester, and in the same year he was constituted Chancellor of England, in which office he remained until March, 1371. Besides enjoying these high offices, as was the custom in those days he held seventeen canonries in different dioceses, besides a deanery and an archdeaconry; and the only apology which a modern church reformer can find for this great plurialist, is the fact that he used the emoluments of his various offices more munificently than did the king himself, and did the country more service than any ordinary seventeen canons, dean, and archdeacon put together. He repaired all the episcopal buildings in his diocese, visited in person, three several times, the monasteries and religious houses, issued injunctions for the reformation of abuses, and established two colleges of students "for the honor of God, and increase of His worship, for the support and exaltation of the Christian faith, and for the improvement of the liberal arts and sciences; hoping and trusting that men of letters and various knowledge, and bred up in the fear of God, would see more clearly and attend more strictly to the obligations lying upon them to observe the rules and directions which he should give them." To this end and in this spirit, he reopened and enlarged, in 1373, the old High School at Winchester where he was educated, but which had fallen into decay, and in 1394 gave it a complete equipment of building, and invested it with chartered privileges under the name of "*Seinte Marie College of Winchester.*" At the same time (in 1373) he commenced a school at Oxford, for which he purchased a site, and obtained the king's patent in 1379, procured the pope's bull, and published, in 1380, his charter of foundation, by which he entitled his college "*Seinte Marie College of Wynchestre in Oxenford.*" The corner-stone was laid at 8 o'clock of the morning of March 5, 1380, and the society—consisting of a warden, seventy-four scholars, students in theology, canon and civil law and philosophy, ten priests, three clerks, and sixteen boys or choristers to minister in the service of the chapel—made their public entrance into the building with much solemnity and devotion, singing litanies, and marching in procession with the cross borne before them, at 9 o'clock in the morning, on the 14th of April, 1386.

Wykeham died in 1404, having enjoyed the pleasure, not only of building up his colleges after his own plan, but of seeing the good effects of his own beneficence, and receiving in them the proper reward of his pious labors· of observing them growing up under his

eye, and even before his death bringing forth those fruits of virtue, piety, and learning, for which he had instituted them, and which he had reason to expect from them. They continued after his death to rise in reputation, and to become consolidated into the structure of English society, furnishing the Church and State with many eminent and able men in all professions, and furnishing the agents, the incentives, and the models of similar works of beneficence. One of his own scholars, Henry Chicheley, whom he had introduced into his college at Winchester and who graduated in his college at Oxford, and who became Archbishop of Canterbury, founded "*All Souls' College in Oxford.*" Henry VI. founded his two colleges, the "*College of the Blessed Mary of Eton, near Windsor,*" and the "*King's College at Cambridge,*" entirely upon Wykeham's plan, whose statutes he had transcribed without any material alteration, and whose head-master, William of Wayneflete, he transferred to Eton, and made provost of the college. Wayneflete himself followed the noble example of Wykeham in his ample foundation of Magdalen College in Oxford.

Dr. Lowth, from whose "Life of William Wykeham" the above facts have been gleaned, after ably sketching the private character as well as the public career of this great educational benefactor of England, concludes as follows:—

We frequently hear of men who, by the force of their genius, by their industry, or by their good fortune, have raised themselves from the lowest stations to the highest degrees of honor, power, and wealth; but how seldom do we meet with those who have made a proper use of the advantages which they have thus happily acquired, and considered them as deposited in their hands by Providence for the general benefit of mankind! In this respect Wykeham stands an uncommon and almost singular example of generosity and public spirit. By the time that he had reached the meridian of life, he had acquired great wealth: and the remainder of his days he employed, not in increasing it to no reasonable end, but in bestowing it in every way that piety, charity, and liberality could devise. The latter half of a long life he spent in one continued series of generous actions and great designs for the good of his friends, of the poor, and of his country. His beneficence was ever vigilant, active, and persevering; it was not only ready to answer when opportunity called, but sought it out when it did not offer itself. No man seems to have tasted more sensibly the pleasure of doing good; and no man had a greater share of this exquisite enjoyment. The foundation of his colleges, the principal monuments of his munificence, was as well calculated for the real use of the public, and as judiciously planned, as it was nobly and generously executed. Whatever Wykeham's attainments in letters were, he had at least the good sense to see that the clergy, though they had almost engrossed the whole learning of that age, yet were very deficient in real and useful knowledge; beside that, by the particular distresses of the times, and the havoc that several successive plagues had made in all ranks of the people, but especially among the clergy, the Church was at a loss for a proper supply of such as were tolerably qualified for the performance of the common service. It was not vanity and ostentation that suggested this design to him; he was prompted to it by the notorious exigence of the times, and the real demands of the public. The deliberation with which he entered upon it, and the constant attention with which he pursued it for above thirty years,

shows how much he set his heart upon the success of his undertaking, and how earnestly he endeavored to secure the effectual attainment of the end proposed, the promotion of true piety and learning. In a word, as he was in his own time a general blessing to his country, in which his bounty was freely imparted to every object that could come within the reach of his influence, so the memory of this great man merits the universal regard of posterity, as of one whose pious and munificent designs were directed to the general good of mankind, and were extended to the latest ages.

VIII. ST. MARY'S COLLEGE IN WINCHESTER,

Founded in 1373.

---

1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.*

LONG before William Long, or William of Wykeham, founded and endowed St. Mary's College in 1373, Winchester had been known as "a school of kings." There Egbert had placed his son Ethelwulf under the teaching of Bishop Helmstan, and there the great Alfred had sat at the feet of St. Swithun. The Saxon Athelwold, whose praise was in all the churches, a true saint and scholar, was in all likelihood educated there; and his biographer, Archbishop Alfric, has an evident pride, near nine hundred years ago, in writing himself down "*Wintonensis alumnus.*" There had been a "High School" there from time that had become almost immemorial even in Wykeham's days; and even that, tradition would have said, was a mere modern institution—a temple of Apollo had preceded the monk's cloister. But later and more personal memories influenced Wykeham's choice. In that High School he had himself been educated by a rich friend's liberallty; he saw it now falling into decay; he saw young scholars, poor but deserving, much in need of the same help which he had found; and his first idea seems to have been to reëstablish and endow his old school for this purpose. He was not a man to do things by halves; and in 1373 he appears to have reopened it at once with seventy scholars, for whose charges he undertook to provide. They were lodged on St. Giles' Hill, just outside the city; and there, under Richard de Herton and other masters, the infant community remained for twenty years. Meanwhile, Wykeham was gradually carrying out the rest of his plan; purchasing "Otterbourne Mead" and other lands in Winchester, for the site of his college there, and gradually establishing in Oxford the mother institution—the "new College" of St. Mary—which was to receive his Winchester scholars in due course for the completion of their education. Not until that noble foundation, with its warden and seventy fellows, chaplains and choristers, was launched into full life within those stately walls which are still the pride of Oxford, did he begin to build at Winchester.

Wykeham drew up for his college a carefully digested body of statutes. Long as they are, they are worth reading through by any one who still cherishes the idle notion that the monkish teaching and discipline of the fourteenth century were necessarily narrow and superstitious. Wykeham's ordinances, at any rate, are full of sound and liberal wisdom. He willed that his boys should grow up as Christians, as scholars, and as gentlemen; and he held these qualifications to be intimately connected. He would have them intelligent students of Holy Scripture, that they might be able to teach others; agreeing in this with a man of a very different age and in many respects very dissimilar spirit—

---

* Abridged from Blackwood's Magazine for January, 1864.

the reformer Melancthon—that Scripture is little likely to be understood theologically by those who have never been at the pains to understand it grammatically. Therefore, he enjoins upon his scholars, above all things, the study of GRAMMAR—"the foundation-stone, the gateway, the source of all other liberal arts and sciences," as he emphatically calls it. They were to be careful to maintain amongst themselves kindness, concord, and brotherly love; "to esteem no man's person," and to hold all distinctions of birth or wealth amongst themselves to be merged in the grand fraternity of letters. To all within the walls of St. Mary's College the admission itself was to be a patent of peerage; reverence was to be paid solely to the masters and the "prefects" of their own body. But outside the gates they were to give to the rank and station of such as they met the honor that was its due. So far was the founder from encouraging the notion that the scholar was like to be the unpolished, absorbed, unsocial being which he has been sometimes represented, that he specially recommends to the Winchester boys the observance of the "*curialis modus*"—that graceful and courtly bearing which they had opportunity of studying in the nobles who formed the king's personal retinue. He had taken as his own motto, "Manners makyth man."

The foundation, as the Bishop devised it, was for a warden and ten fellows, three chaplains and three clerks in orders, a head-master, (*informator*,) an under-master, (*hostiarius*,) seventy scholars, "poor and in need of help," and sixteen choristers. It has been always held that there was a religious symbolism in the numbers, though Wykeham himself gives no hint of it. The warden and fellows represent the eleven apostles, Judas' place being vacant; the six chaplains and clerks are the six orthodox deacons—Nicholas, by tradition, being a heretic; the masters and scholars are the body of disciples who were sent forth two by two—the Vulgate text giving the number at seventy-two; while in the sixteen choristers are set forth the prophets of the old dispensation, four "greater" and twelve "less."*

The founder was seventy-four years old when he saw the great design of his life completed. On the 28th of March, 1393—seven years after the opening of New College in Oxford—the warden and scholars of "St. Mary College of Winchester" left their temporary location on St. Giles' Hill, and took possession of the new buildings. The good Bishop himself, with his cross borne before him, his warden, John Morris, his "informator," John Milton, and the scholars under their charge, entered in solemn procession, with chant and litany, at nine o'clock in the forenoon. No fellows appear to have been appointed until the following year, and then only five out of the ten proposed.

King Richard granted a liberal charter of privileges to the new foundation, which was confirmed by all his successors except Queen Mary. The frequent sojourn of the court at Winchester could not fail to bring a certain amount of royal favor and patronage. Henry VI was a frequent visitor at St. Mary's College, attending their chapel services, and making liberal offerings; and there he found his model for his own foundation at Eton. Whether Etonians will readily confess it or not now that the daughter has outgrown the mother, it is

* Perhaps it is with some notion of carrying out this scriptural symbolism, that the college boys (who have a very curious and copious argot of their own) have from time immemorial called the under-porters by the name of one of the minor prophets. The present official is *Joel;* the next is to be *Amos* in regular succession.

undeniably true that the Royal College was but a colony from Winchester. The first head-master was William of Waynflete, who migrated from the elder college (where he had taught for thirteen years) with five fellows and thirty-five scholars, in 1443. The bond of connection between the two societies continued to be close and intimate for many generations, although the migration of head-masters took a reverse direction; three at least—Clement Smyth, William Horeman, and Thomas Erlysman—in the course of the following half century, resigning their office at Eton for the more honorable and lucrative position of informator at Winchester. Mutual visits and hospitalities between their wardens and provosts kept up the kindly feeling of a common origin; and in 1445 there was drawn up and signed between them an instrument styled an "Amicable Concord," in which, after reciting the identity of object and common interest of both colleges, they undertake to support and protect each other in all lawful causes, ecclesiastical and civil, against all other persons or interests whatever. The use of a common grammar for some years contributed to maintain a feeling of fellowship among the scholars. King Henry is not recorded to have dined in hall at Winchester, although several of his court were entertained there on one occasion, when the society laid in "a pipe of red wine," which cost them eight pounds. It does not appear that his successor, Edward IV, ever paid them a visit in person; but in January, 1471, he sent one of his men to the college with a lion, whom perhaps the boys were quite as glad to see.

When Prince Arthur was born at Winchester, Henry VII visited the college in state, and was entertained in the warden's lodging. Henry VIII paid the society two visits—the first time accompanied by the Emperor Charles V. But the Wykehamists regard him as any thing but a patron or a benefactor. Not content with forcing upon them the exchange of some of their best manors and advowsons, he did his best to suppress them altogether by the terms of his new statute for the dissolution of colleges. John White, then warden, (afterwards Bishop of Lincoln,) has the credit of having prevented the application of this statute to his own college; and three years afterwards it was repealed by Edward's Statute of Exceptions. King Edward's commissioners insisted, however, on certain reforms; that in future the Scriptures should be read in hall in English instead of Latin; that each scholar should possess a New Testament; that they should omit from that time forth the singing or saying of *Stella Cœli* or *Salve Regina*, "or any such-like untrue or superstitious anthem;" and, amongst other regulations, that there should be "no excessive correction;" which latter proviso, at any rate, was likely to make the new injunctions popular with the college boys.

The young King Edward, during his short reign, paid Winchester a visit, on which occasion the scholars of the college presented him with no less than forty-two copies of Latin verses. Thomas Hyde, the head-master at the time, was "a person of great gravity and severity, and a lover of virtuous men," says John Pitts, himself an eminent Wykehamist; "very stiff and perverse," Strype calls him—testimonies which are not quite so contradictory as they seem, when the bias of the witnesses is taken into account. On the accession of Elizabeth, not being inclined to adopt the reformed faith, he retired to Douai. The feelings of Wykeham's society, as of all collegiate bodies founded under the old discipline, were naturally hostile to the Church reformers, and there was little inclination on the part of the latter to deal in the least tenderly with what

many of them looked upon as nests of monkery. The very name of the "College of St. Mary" was odious to their ears. In the year following King Edward's visit, Queen Mary was married in the cathedral to Philip of Spain, and the bride and bridegroom attended service in the college chapel; but only twenty-five of the scholars were able to produce congratulatory verses on the occasion.

Queen Elizabeth paid a visit to the college in 1570. Her scholarly tastes were well known, and the Wykehamists, of course, improved the occasion. George Coryatt and William Rainolds, fellows of New College, met her at the gates with an oration; and she had to listen to no less than forty complimentary effusions, in Latin and Greek verse, by the scholars. There is a copy of them all to be seen amongst Ashmole's manuscripts at Oxford; all are in the prevalent vein of flattery, and few have any merit besides brevity. But, if the traditionary story be true, there was one young scholar whose wit and readiness deserved a purse of gold better than Master Coryatt's oration. Her Majesty pleasantly asked him whether he had ever made acquaintance with that celebrated rod whose fame had reached even her royal ears. Both the question and the questioner would have embarrassed most school-boys; but he replied by an admirable quotation from Virgil—a familiar line, which the Queen was like enough to have understood:—

Infandum, Regina, jubes renovare dolorem.*

It is very ungrateful of the Wykehamists not to have preserved his name. It was possibly the same youthful genius, or at least a very worthy successor, who depicted upon the wall of "sixth chamber"—where it may still be traced—a representation of that same renowned implement of discipline, with the grimly facetious motto underneath—"*Animum pictura pascit inani.*" The Winton rod, in fact, deserves a more special notice than might be thought appropriate in the case of the ordinary birch, whose modest worth (though undeniable) is usually held to be best veiled in obscurity, especially since Mr. Tupper's proverbs have superseded Solomon's. It is not a birch at all; it is four slender apple-twigs set into a wooden handle; immemorial custom rules that the twigs should be provided by two juniors, who hold the responsible office of rod-maker, under the orders of the prefect of hall. It is by no means a severe-looking implement; but possibly it must be felt to be fully appreciated. It need hardly be said that it is applied in the ordinary fashion; six cuts forming what is technically called a "bibling"—on which occasion the Bible clerk (prefect of school) introduces the victim; and four being the sum of a less terrible operation called a "scrubbing." The invention of this very peculiar instrument is ascribed to Dr. John Baker, who was thirty-three years warden, (1454–87,) but of whose acts and deeds little more is on record than the Latin distich in which this contribution to college discipline is immortalized:—

Si laus est, inventa quidem Custode Bakero
Ex quadripartito vimine flagra ferunt.

If we wish to know something of the internal economy and general working of the college at the time of Queen Elizabeth's visit, it so happens that there ex-

* Virg. Æn. ii. 3:—

"Great Queen, what you command me to relate
Renews the sad remembrance of our fate."—DRYDEN.

ists a record of it, drawn up by the very best authority, and which enters pretty fully into detail. The head-master at that time was one Christopher Johnson—a man of very elegant scholarship, of varied accomplishments, who wrote a life of the founder, and a long poem in hexameters describing the arrangement of the several chambers, the hours of work and recreation, and the peculiar customs of the college as they then existed.

The scholars at this time were expected to rise at the sound of "first peal" at five o'clock, and were recommended to say privately a short Latin selection from the Psalms as soon as they were dressed. They then swept out their chambers and made their beds, (consisting in those days of nothing better than bundles of straw * with a coverlet,) and "second peal," at half-past five, summoned them to chapel. But these early hours appear to have been as distasteful to some of the young Wykehamists of that day as they are to modern schoolboys; for in a copy of verses, either of Mr. Johnson's composition or correction, Melpomene is represented as going round the scholars' beds in the morning, and finding some of them snoring at unlawful hours, to that indefatigable virgin's extreme disgust. At six they went into school, and came out at nine to a breakfast of bread and beer, for which they must by that time have had a pretty vigorous appetite. At eleven they went into school again, and at twelve came dinner. Under the superintendence of the *præfectus ollæ*, (prefect of tub,) portions of beef, called *dispars*,† were served out to the boys in messes of four, with a sufficiency of bread, and beer in large black jacks; the Bible clerk meanwhile reading aloud a chapter from the Old Testament. The choristers waited at table. An antiphonal grace and psalm were sung, after which the choristers and college servants took their dinner. Between the two doors inside the hall stood, as it stands now, the *olla* or tub—a strong chest bound with iron hoops—into which all the fragments of the meal were put, and afterwards distributed amongst the poor. Until the last few years the "prefect of tub" (whose duty it was to examine the quality of the meat sent in by the college butcher, and after dinner, to see to the proper collection and distribution of the remains) retained his title, though the office had become almost nominal. School opened again at two o'clock; at half-past three came an interval called "bever-time," when the boys had again bread and beer allowed them. At five the school was dismissed, and the whole resident society—warden, fellows, masters, and scholars—went in procession round the cloisters and the whole interior circuit of the college, which was called going *circum*. Thus they passed into the hall, where a supper of mutton was served—one *dispar* to every three boys. Even-song in chapel was at eight, after which, in those primitive days, the young Wykehamists thought it full time to go to bed.

The school-room was still "seventh chamber"—*Magna illa domus*, as the founder's directions call it—though, as some of the commoners must have been taught together with the scholars, it is difficult to understand how so many could have found room there without great confusion. Johnson remarks, indeed, that they had no fire in this room, for that the warm sunbeams and the warm *breaths* ‡ were quite sufficient; and certainly, if any thing like a hundred

* Hence, in college, to this day, clean sheets are spoken of as *clean straw*.

† *i. e.*, portions, (*dispertio.*)

‡ "Nec schola nostra focum complectitur, attamen omnes
Phœbeis radiis, halituque calescimus oris."—CHR. JOHNSON.

boys were there collected, that sort of natural heating apparatus must have been very powerful. But the younger commoners, probably, seldom came into school, and in summer-time the whole of the scholars usually adjourned for lessons into the adjacent cloisters; a delightful arrangement, from which the latter portion of the "long half" is still called "cloister-time." The tiers of stone seats, which may still be noticed in the deep recesses of the windows, were the places in which the prefects sat when the boys were arranged in their respective *books*—the term still used at Winchester for what in other schools would be called "forms" or "classes." There was then, as now, four books only, though the highest was and is numbered as the "sixth." Then followed the fifth, fourth, and second-fourth. The work of the sixth book comprised Homer, Hesiod, Virgil, Cicero, Martial, and Robinson's Rhetoric. There were twelve college prefects "in full power," of whom one was of "hall," one of "cloisters," one of "school," (called also *ostiarius*, whose duties seem to have been, in fact, those of a porter to open the door for the masters,) two of "chapel," and one of "*tub*;" there were also six of lower authority. Tuesdays and Thursdays were partial holidays, on which the boys went out to "hills" twice; once in the morning, returning at nine to breakfast, and again in the afternoon, coming off at three. Friday was the day of doom, when all arrears of flogging incurred during the week were punctually cleared off.

The upper rooms in the buildings were occupied by the fellows, three in each. The warden had his private lodging "above the inner northern gate," with some rooms east and west of it: the present election chamber was probably his hall: and from this there is a continuous communication by doors and passages throughout the whole upper story, which would enable him at any time to visit and overlook the members of his collegiate body. The head-master and his subordinate were lodged together, and the three chaplains had a room in common near the kitchen. Of the chambers below the scholars occupied six and the choristers one; and it was considerately enjoined, that no occupant of the rooms above was to throw any thing down upon their heads to the detriment of themselves or their goods and chattels. In each of the scholars' rooms were to be three of the eighteen prefects, as enjoined by the founder's statutes; boys "more advanced than the rest in years, discretion, and learning," who were to exercise a supervision over their fellows; so ancient is the system, which, adopted by Eton from Winchester, has long become a recognized feature in all our public schools—the intrusting more or less of the discipline to an aristocracy of the scholars themselves, whether under the name of prefects, monitors, or prepostors. One part of their duty was to instruct the juniors; and this early employment of the monitorial system must have been a very necessary part of the constitution of the school, if, as seems likely, the head-master had only one regular assistant. It is still continued in the college under a modified form; each of the junior boys has still his tutor amongst the prefects, the ten seniors having six or seven pupils each allotted to them, whom they are expected to assist in school difficulties generally, and especially in preparation for "standing-up" time, as the junior examinations at the end of the summer half are called. In earlier times it would appear that this kind of deputy teaching was extended to the younger commoners as well, and led to some degree of abuse and neglect. In 1655, during the head-mastership of Dr. Burte, a little boy of six years old was placed at Winchester as a "commoner in college," with other young boys,

under the care of one of the fellows named May. These appear to have had no kind of teaching except from the college prefects in turn, who attended at certain hours, and made a periodical report to the master as to how their little pupils conducted themselves, and what progress they were making in their studies. At eight years old this boy was admitted into college. Probably many boys were thus sent as commoners at a very early age, with a view to their subsequent election on the foundation; for, in 1660, one Thomas Middleton petitions King Charles, on his restoration, to grant his royal letters to the Winchester electors in favor of his son's admittance, "as a child in Winchester College, where he has now spent three years as fellow-commoner." Of these fellow-commoners, or "commoners" as they are now termed, who have come to form a supplementary body of scholars doubling in number the college boys themselves, it will be necessary to give some account.

Provision had been made in the original statutes for the reception and instruction of independent students to the number of ten, sons of noblemen or of "special friends" of the college, who, though not claiming the other advantages of the foundation, might yet wish to avail themselves of its sound teaching; with a proviso that these should not be in any way burdensome to the revenues. Some of these earlier "commoners" were lodged within the walls, and some in a separate establishment, the old College of St. Elizabeth of Hungary, standing in St. Stephen's Mead. This building, after serving for some years as a kind of hostel to Wykeham's college, was surrendered by the last of its provosts in 1544, and pulled down. The present boundary wall at the bottom of "Meads" was built partly out of the materials; and corbel-heads and carved stones have been worked in here and there, standing out from the rest of the stone-work in a fashion somewhat puzzling to a curious stranger.

On the suppression of St. Elizabeth's, and probably also before, some of these commoners were lodged with the warden, some in other parts of the college, probably under the immediate charge of one of the fellows, and some in houses in the city. Those who lodged with the warden were usually of higher rank; and during some years, in the rolls which have been preserved, there is a distinction between ordinary *commensales* or commoners, and *generosi commensales*, such as is still admitted between commoners and gentleman-commoners at Oxford. In the roll of 1688 the warden's boarders appear as "Nob: Com:" Lord Guildford, Hon. Nathanael Fiennes, Lord Ashley, Sir Thos. Putt, and Sir Thos. Wroth. But this distinction soon disappears, though some of the commoners still continue to be lodged within the walls. The last entry of a "*commensalis in collegio*" occurs in the roll for 1747, during Dr. Burton's head-mastership. In his time the college rose rapidly as a place of education for many of the young nobility, and the accommodations were found insufficient. He built what is now remembered by the Wykehamists of the past generation as "Old Commoners," a very much more picturesque-looking building, though probably not so convenient as the present, containing hall, dormitories, tutors' rooms, and prefects' studies. The number of commoners gradually increased, though with some fluctuations, until in 1820 they reached 135. "Old Commoners" was pulled down in 1839–41 to make way for the present building, which was the result of a general Wykehamist subscription; and of which, architecturally and æsthetically, the less that is said the better, as also of certain other modern improvements which successive wardens have made in the college buildings themselves.

The commoners are, in point of fact, little more than the private boarders of the head-master, attending the regular lessons of the school in company with the boys on the foundation, and amalgamated with them so far as school classification and school work are concerned. At other times they are necessarily a good deal separated, partly by locality, and partly also by a distinct *esprit de corps*. From the time that they began to rival the college boys in numbers, a certain amount of jealousy has always existed between the two bodies, though both proud of their common designation as Wykehamists. There is, of course, some little assumption of superiority in rank on the part of the commoners, who look upon "College" as in some sort an eleemosynary foundation. The college boys still wear the gown of black cloth, with a full sleeve looped up at the elbow, and a sort of cassock waistcoat; but the square academic cap so much affected by provincial "colleges" has been discontinued. This costume, in older times, was worn by the commoners as well—at all events, by those who were lodged within the college walls; and the *nobiles* amongst Dr. Burton's old pupils appear to have consulted their own fancy as to the color; some of them, as represented in the series of half-length portraits which he left as a legacy to his successors, appearing in blue and others in red silk gowns. At present the commoners wear no gown at all. They have also somewhat more liberty with respect to bounds, have their own separate ground for football, and in some other respects are not closely associated with the college out of school hours. These things necessarily prevent, in some degree, that thorough amalgamation into one body which is so desirable in members of the same school; but the line of distinction is gradually wearing out, and the recent changes, which have made election into college entirely a matter of competitive scholarship, will do very much to dissipate any foolish notions of the foundationers' position being the inferior one.

The election of boys into college, however it might have been managed in Wykeham's own days, had, from time immemorial until the late reforms, been a mere matter of patronage on the part of the electors. These were, according to the statutes, the warden and two of the fellows of New College, Oxford, and the warden, sub-warden, and head-master of St. Mary's, Winchester. They were charged to elect, in the first place, those of the founder's kindred who should be eligible; and, after all such claims should have been satisfied, they were to fill the vacancies with such as were "poor and in need of help, of good character and condition, towardly in learning, of honest conversation, and competently instructed in reading, plain-song, and in *Donatus*"—the Eton Grammar of Wykeham's day.

Much stress has been laid in past days upon the diversion of Wykeham's provision for "poor" scholars to the benefit of the rich. But the best and fairest reading of any man's intentions is what can be gathered from his own practice; and the next best, perhaps, is that in which they were understood and carried out by his immediate successors. Chichele (the Archbishop) was one of Wykeham's earliest "poor" scholars on St. Giles' Hill; and he was the son of a Lord Mayor of London, certainly not *poor* in the common acceptation of the word. William of Wayneflete, again, was nominated into the college during the founder's life; and he came of a good family whatever his pecuniary resources might be. Archbishop Warham—"a gentleman of an ancient house in Hampshire"—was a scholar some fifty years after. But it is plain that the kind

of education which Wykeham contemplated was unsuitable for any boys except those intended for liberal callings, and to such it seems always to have been very properly confined.

The preference assigned to "founder's kin" in the election soon brought into the field, as may be supposed, young Wykehams and Williamses from all quarters, with others who proved more or less satisfactorily their connection with the founder's family; and gradually the custom obtained of electing two only of these favored candidates at the head of the roll for admission, and filling up the remaining vacancies by a process of successive nomination by each of the six electors, the warden of New College having the first turn, until the number of vacancies was supplied. In Warton's time, the candidates were merely required "to repeat a few lines from some author suited to their age and capacity;" and the examination under the system which has just passed away continued to the last of much the same character. The successive royal patrons of Winchester were not above asking occasionally, on behalf of some of their dependents, for a "child's" place in college, or a fellowship at Oxford. The Stuart kings, as may be seen from the state papers of those reigns, were very much given to this kind of patronage. James I, on the strength of his somewhat pedantic reputation, interferes so far as to recommend Richard Fitzherbert as schoolmaster; but one is glad to find that he was never appointed. To be sure there was no vacancy at the time, nor for years afterwards; but possibly the King expected the college to make one. Charles II, in one of these royal letters of request, has the coolness to plead the loftiest motives, recommending one Master Matt. Preston solely as "being wishful to supply that happy nursery with deserving youths." Secretary Windebank got a son elected there by royal favor; and one of the boy's letters home has the honor of accidental preservation among the state papers. It is a very stiff and formal little production, becoming a young Secretary of State. He is sorry that "he can not write a letter worthy of his father's perusal," but "sends him hearty wishes for his welfare," with six lines of Latin verse. The verse is but indifferent; but there are less creditable documents amongst the Secretary's correspondence. Queen Elizabeth herself once endeavors to get a Mr. Cotton elected fellow, with an immediate view to the wardenship then vacant; but the house successfully stood out against so very palpable a job.

In the year 1579, under the mastership of Thomas Bilson, (Bishop of Worcester,) there was something like an insurrection on the part of the boys. They must have had, or thought they had, grave causes of complaint, for they carried their petition before the Queen, and two of the fellows had to journey to court to answer it. Some of them ran away, and it cost Mr. Booles and Mr. Budd some hard riding (and 10s. 10d. horse-hire) to catch them and bring them back. How the matter was settled does not appear; but it might have had something to do with Bilson's resignation in that year or the following.

A school-bill of 1620, for a son of Archbishop Hutton, gives some notion of the Winchester of the Stuarts' days. Master Hutton cost his father "for his dyet at Mr. Philips'" (the fellow with whom he lodged as commoner) £1 10s., from August 16th to September 31st, when he seems to have been elected into college. His "scob, to hold his books," cost 3s. 6d. The boys went once to the royal hunt in the New Forest, in a wagon, (hired for 4s.,) under charge of one "Willes" and two other college servants; they took their dinner and wine

with them into the Forest, and had *cæcubum* (mulled wine of some sort) with their supper when they came home. This picnic party cost Master Hutton 6d. extra. But his studies were not neglected; there is a wholesome item in the bill of 4d. "*for birche.*"

The civil wars came, and the city of Winchester was held alternately for the King and the Commons. Sir William Waller, unable to reduce the castle, vented his rage upon the cathedral, where his troopers hewed down carved work and images with pious ferocity. The college would have suffered equally, but that it chanced to have a friend amongst the rebel authorities. Nathanael Fiennes, fellow of New College and colonel of horse, was a sour Independent, but a good Wykehamist. He occupied his school quarters with his men, putting in a sort of friendly execution, and thus saved it from wreck and pillage. The college authorities did not grudge the £29 5s. 6d. which (as appears from their accounts) they distributed among the guard, though it was a large sum in those days. Another Wykehamist—Nicholas Love, son of a former warden—is said also to have had a share in protecting the college from outrage. Cromwell afterwards appeared before the castle in person, and planted his guns on a hill to the south-west, near St. Cross Hospital, still bearing the name of "Oliver's Battery." The great oak doors of "Non-licet" gate, standing at the corner of "Meads," still bear marks which are shown as the traces of the rebel grape-shot. How the college carried on its work in these troubled times, and whether any temporary suspension took place, are points of great interest, but on which no information seems now recoverable, further than that John Potenger, the head-master, resigned in 1653, in disgust at certain Puritanical innovations; whilst Warden Harris appears to have held on through all changes, political and religious, for eight-and-twenty of the darkest years of England's history, dying only the month before the Protector, in 1658. One of his eulogists calls him, for his eloquence, the "modern Chrysostom;" but one would think he must also have had a capacity for silence, to have offended none of the various powers that then were.

In 1687, on the eve of another great revolution, the present school-room was finished and opened, which must have been an immense relief to the crowded numbers of college and commoners. From that time Seventh Chamber was converted into what it still remains—the principal dormitory. The new school is lofty and spacious, but the Jacobean architecture is sadly out of keeping with Wykeham's original buildings. It cost £2,600; of which Dr. John Nicholas, then warden, contributed no less than £1,477. Ninety feet long and thirty-six in breadth, it is sufficiently spacious to allow all the "books" to be assembled there without more confusion than is inseparable from the system of teaching so many distinct classes in a single room—an arrangement peculiar to Winchester alone amongst our large public schools. Three tiers of fixed seats rise against the wainscoted walls on the east and west, where the boys are arranged when "up to books," the chairs of the different masters being in front of each. The middle of the room is occupied by blocks of oak benches, with gangways between, upon which are fixed the college boys' boxes (called in the peculiar school tongue *scobs*—"box" spelt backwards) where the lessons are prepared; each scob having an outer lid, which, when raised, forms a kind of screen, while the inner lid serves as a desk; the books and writing materials being kept below. Against the west wall is fixed a large wooden tablet, on which is painted the

well-known Wykehamist device—a mitre and a crosier at the top—as the prizes of diligence, (it must be remembered that all Wykeham's scholars were originally intended for the Church, and all above the age of sixteen were to receive the first tonsure;) next, a sword and an inkhorn, pointing to civil and military service for less hopeful students; and the quadripartite rod below, as the last alternative. Under each emblem successively stand, in bold capitals, the warning words, "AUT DISCE—AUT DISCEDE—MANET SORS TERTIA, CÆDI." Underneath is the place of execution, where delinquents are "bibled;" and near it is a socket for a candle-sconce, known as the "nail," under which any boy who has been detected in any disgraceful fault—lying, &c.—is placed as in a sort of pillory to wait his punishment; a piece of ancient discipline for which happily there is seldom occasion. On the opposite wall is a similar tablet, containing a code of school regulations in Latin. This school-room is almost the only addition to Wykeham's original plan, with the exception of the present warden's house, built by Warden Harmar in 1579 on the site of some old storehouses and other offices, and refronted in 1832 in very questionable style.

The Revolution of 1688 brought into prominence the names of at least two Wykehamists, whose steadfastness to the allegiance they had sworn, "though to their own hindrance," has won them praise from all honest men of both parties. Two of the nonjuring bishops, Ken and Turner, had been schoolmates in the college before they were fellow-prisoners in the Tower (with a third Winchester scholar of almost a generation earlier—Lloyd of St. Asaph) and fellow-sufferers in their deprivation under William. The youngest Wykehamist will point out with a reverent pride the letters THO: KEN carved on one of the pillars in cloisters; and underneath R. T., with the date 1656 above, which tradition says connects Turner's name with that of his school-fellow. No profane knife has encroached upon the sacred characters; and though Ken lies buried far from the scenes which he loved with an enduring affection, those few rude letters are memorial enough; and no saint who was ever canonized better deserved the title than he who wrote his "Manual of Prayers for the Winchester Scholars."

The head-masters who followed were Drs. Harris, Cheyney, and Burton. The latter, as has been said, gave to "commoners" a permanent establishment, owing to which their numbers increased, and the school bade fair at one time to rival Eton in aristocratic pupils, especially from the young Scottish nobility. To him succeeded Dr. Joseph Warton, the best known of all who have borne rule at Winchester, though by no means the most able or successful of head-masters. He was a man of elegant tastes and accomplishments, of amiable character, dignified, and courteous manners; but he was an inefficient disciplinarian, and an inaccurate scholar. He is said to have been deficient in moral courage; which could hardly have been true if what is told of his collision with Dr. Johnson be correct. Warton had ventured on some occasion to express an opinion differing from that of the conversational autocrat. "Sir," said Johnson, "I am not accustomed to be contradicted." "Better for you, sir, if you were; our respect for you could not be increased, but our love might." It need hardly be said that the love between the two doctors was never very cordial afterwards. It might have been supposed that a man who could so rebuke Johnson could at least govern school-boys. Probably it was his defective scholarship, which boys are sharp at detecting in a master, which first weakened his

authority. When the boys came to a stiff Greek chorus, he always complained of a noise in school; and while he was shouting to the prefect to maintain silence, the passage was allowed to be shuffled over in any way that might relieve him from criticism. For the same reason he was fond of requiring from the boys written translations, in which difficulties could be loosely paraphrased, and which he could at least examine and correct at his leisure; and he is said to have liberally rewarded instead of rebuking, as he should have done, a boy, who, when called up to construe a passage in Horace, shut his book and recited Pope's "Imitation." His weak though popular administration paved the way for the most formidable rebellion on record in any public school, although the then warden, Dr. Huntingford, was the immediate object of the outbreak. It took place on the 3d of April, 1793. Strict orders had been issued by the warden that the boys should not attend the parade of the Bucks Militia; that in the event of disobedience on the part of any individual boy, he should be individually punished; but that if any numbers were seen there, the whole school should have their "leave-out stopped for the following Easter Sunday, when many had invitations to dine with friends. *One* boy only—a prefect—was detected and reported by Mr. Goddard, the second master. The warden not only severely punished the individual, but stopped the leave of the whole school, accompanying this with a quotation more irritating than appropriate, "*Quidquid delirant reges plectuntur Achivi.*" The boys resented this as a breach of faith; and after holding a meeting, in which they bound themselves by an oath (in which, however, the younger boys were not allowed to join) to stand by each other in their resistance to the last, they drew up a series of resolutions, of which they proceeded to put the first into execution at once. A Latin note was sent to the warden submitting to the present punishment, but expressing a hope that in future he would not punish all for the fault of one. To this note Dr. Huntingford returned no answer. After three days a second note was forwarded to him, very respectfully worded, but requesting a reply. It was returned with an indorsement charging the writers with "consummate arrogance" and forgetfulness of their position and their duties. Then the storm broke out. The keys of the college gate were seized. Warning was sent both to the head and second masters not to make their appearance in school. The warning to Dr. Warton was accompanied by professions of esteem; he was weak enough to comply, and kept away. Goddard (though aware of his unpopularity as the delator of the actual culprit) had a better appreciation of his duty. He was received, on entering the school, with groans and hisses, and with a shower of marbles from the younger boys—an act censured by the prefects. A summons issued by the warden and masters to the eighteen prefects to appear before them met with no attention; the communication between the warden's lodgings and the rest of the college was blocked up, and the college gates guarded night and day by patrols of the scholars. The cry of "Liberty and Equality" was raised, (so contagious were French revolutionary principles,) the "red cap" was assumed by all the boys who could procure or contrive one, the bakers' and butchers' shops ransacked for provisions, and bludgeons and swords provided in preparation for a siege. The warden, having gone out of his own house early next morning to convene a meeting of the fellows at Dr. Warton's house, (in commoners,) was not allowed readmission; and by confining one of the fellows within the college walls, the rebels effectually prevented a *quorum* of four being

formed, which is required for any official act of their body. A message was then sent from the warden to the effect that all the boys might go home; but in that case they were well aware that expulsion of the ringleaders would follow. The warden then applied to the magistrates (who happened to be then assembled to present an address to the king) to put him in possession of his house, from which he was still excluded by the insurgents, by the aid of the civil power. The outer gates of the college had by this time been barricaded, the quadrangle unpaved, and the stones carried up to the top of the tower above, part of the parapet of which they also loosened to supply them with missiles to resist attack from without. When summoned to surrender by the sheriff in person, their reply was a threat to burn the college if any attempt was made to force an entrance. Sir Thomas Miller, Mr. Brereton, and Canon Poulter, severally did their best to negotiate; but there was such excitement in the town generally, and so much fear of the "roughs" taking part with the boys, that three companies of militia were drawn up under arms in College street. At last, Dr. Warton, with one or two of the above-named gentlemen, were admitted within the gates; and on their representations, the boys agreed to submit the whole question to the arbitration of the magistrates. The matter ended for the time in an entire amnesty, or even more; the warden conceding the original point of dispute, by an engagement not in future to punish the community for the sake of an individual. But these terms—plainly far more favorable than ever should have been offered—appear not to have been strictly kept on either side. The authority which failed to assert itself against open violence sought to take advantage of quieter times, and the result was a most unhappy one. More than one parent at once received a private request to take his son away from the college, at least for a time; and a few days after one of the prefects was required by his father—it was supposed at the warden's instance—either to beg pardon of the latter, or resign his scholarship. He stoutly chose the latter; and his late companions (a portion of whose mutual engagement had been that no boy should take advantage of another's loss of college advantages in consequence of his share in these proceedings) thought themselves bound in honor to support him. All but one who had signed the oath sent up their resignations to the warden. Nineteen repented the next morning, and asked leave in another note to withdraw them. The only reply was:—"The warden and fellows can not return any answer." A college meeting was held, and twenty-six boys were formally expelled, and others desired to leave. Possibly no other course was now left; no government is so bound to severities as a weak one; but the respect which every public schoolman must feel for school discipline can not prevent him from feeing some sympathy with the victims. It is not surprising that Dr. Warton resigned his head-mastership at the close of the half-year.

One of Warton's pupils was Sidney Smith, who, with his younger brother Courtenay, entered the college about 1781. If his evidence as to the internal discipline and morals were entirely to be trusted, it would leave on record a very black picture indeed of the Winchester of his day. Even in his old age, says his daughter and biographer, he "used to shudder at the recollection" of it, and speak with horror of the wretchedness of the years he spent there. "The whole system," he used to say, "was one of abuse, neglect, and vice. There never was enough provided even of the coarsest food, and the little boys were of course left to fare as they could." He declares that his brother Courtenay,

who ran away twice, did so because he was unable to bear the hardship. But there are two or three little incidental passages in the biography which make one doubt whether the witty divine's record is altogether an honest one. Master Courtenay Smith, it appears, owed a little bill of £30 in the town the last time he ran away, so that one of his hardships might have been the difficulty of paying it. And when we hear Sidney's own testimony that both he and his brothers were, before they went to Winchester, "the most intolerable and overbearing set of boys that can well be imagined," it is easy to conceive that they would not find a public school exactly a bed of roses. Sidney, too, must have enjoyed himself there occasionally after his own fashion; for Dr. Warton found him one day exercising that rough-and-ready mechanical genius which produced the celebrated "patent Tantalus" of his after-days, in constructing a catapult in chambers by lamp-light; and commended him highly for his ingenuity, little dreaming that it was intended to bring down a neighbor's turkey, on which the boys had fixed devouring eyes with a view to supper. Both brothers held their own there at any rate in point of ability; for the boys, it is said, at last signed a round-robin, refusing to compete for the college prizes if the Smiths were any longer allowed to enter the list, as they were always sure to win them; and Sidney left the school as captain.

On the other hand, William Lisle Bowles, who left Winchester just as the Smiths were entering, speaks with delight of his school-days, and has no morbid reminiscences of his hardships even as a junior; and yet Bowles' poetic and somewhat delicate temperament was at least as little fitted for the roughness of public-school life as the more vigorous nature of the Canon of St. Paul's. But, no doubt, a Winchester education in those days did imply a considerable amount of this rough training. Independently of very early hours and somewhat coarse fare, it was not pleasant to have to wash at the old "Moab,"* as it was called—an open conduit in the quadrangle, where it was necessary, on severe winter mornings, for a junior to melt the ice on the stop-cock with a lighted fagot before any water could be got to flow at all; or for the same unfortunate junior to have to watch out in the cold quadrangle, before early lesson, (without a hat, for in that sacred inclosure no junior is allowed to wear one,) to give notice of the exact moment when the master went into school, that the seniors might waste none of their more precious time, but make their rush at the last available moment.

William Stanley Goddard succeeded Dr. Warton certainly under very difficult circumstances; but an abler or better ruler never was at Winchester. There was no rebellion in his reign; yet his old pupils know that he governed at least as much by appeals to their better feelings as by fear of punishment. He acted constantly on that assumption of a boy's truthfulness and honor, which has always been found a successful principle of government in judicious hands, and which has been somewhat unfairly claimed as an entirely modern notion so far as public education is concerned. But he did not hold his office very long; he resigned in 1810, comparatively a young man, living thirty-seven years after-

* The "wash-pot." Here all the college boys, within living memory, had to wash in the open air, except that there was originally a sort of penthouse over it, replaced afterwards by a wretched Ionic portico, of which a print appears in Ball's "Walks in Winchester," p. 154. In the same Winton tongue the shoe-cleaning place was known as *Edom*. Other local designations are classical; there is an *Arcadia*, an Upper and Lower *Dalmatia*, and a ditch on the way to "Hills" called *Tempe*.

wards, and always retaining the strongest attachment to the college. He showed it by a remarkable act of munificence, ten years before his death, when he invested £25,000 of his private property in order to provide stipends for the under-masters in the college, on condition of their giving up their claim to "gratuities" from the boys, which had hitherto formed their chief remuneration. In fact, up to this time the expenses of a college boy at Winchester far from being gratuitous, as Wykeham had intended, amounted, including bills and extras of one kind and another, to something like £80 per annum. Now, it does not exceed $17 or £18. The "Goddard" scholarship for proficiency in classics, the blue ribbon of Winchester, was founded in honor of this liberal benefactor in 1846, the year before his death, superseding the prize which had for some years been given by Sir William Heathcote.

The Rev. Henry Gabell, who had been appointed second master on Dr. Goddard's promotion, succeeded him again in the head-mastership. He insisted strongly upon *accurate* scholarship, for which Winchester has never lost its reputation. But his administration was marked by a second rebellion, nearly as formidable as the first, of which it seems to have been a sort of copy. The boys, taking offense at some breach, or fancied breach, of their privileges, wrote up in the school as their adopted motto, "*Maxima debetur pueris reverentia*"—scarcely a less inappropriate quotation of Horace than Warden Huntingford's on the former occasion. Again the keys of the college were seized, the court unpaved, and the stones carried up to the tower as ammunition for an expected siege; but this time the senior prefect and five of his fellow-officers, not choosing to risk the certain loss of their prospects at New College, refused to join in the insurrection. Nevertheless, matters proceeded so far that the Fusilier Guards, then quartered in the barracks, were called out to keep the peace in College street, where the mob had assembled in formidable numbers. The result was, of course, the discomfiture and punishment of the ringleaders; twelve college boys, most of them prefects, were expelled, many others degraded from their places in the school, and forty commoners were not allowed to return after the vacation.

It had become almost the rule at Winchester for the second master to succeed to the head-mastership, and Dr. Williams was so appointed in 1824. His reign was quiet, and on the whole successful. There was indeed a trifling disturbance amongst the junior commoners, owing to an alledged abuse of the privilege of fagging by the prefects, which caused some excitement at the time. It was the rule in those days, both in college and in commoners, that no junior should presume to get his own breakfast until the prefects had finished, which usually necessitated a very hurried affair of mere bread-and-butter and cold milk on the part of the former. In commoners they had to sit on a cross bench in hall to be in waiting during both the prefects' breakfast and supper; and certainly those young gentlemen must have been curious in the matter of toast, for each of them (there were only eight at that time) regularly employed two juniors as toasters. It is difficult at this date to discuss the important rights of the junior fifth, on which the whole question hinged; but they claimed, by custom, exemption from the duties of breakfast-waiters. However, as boys came to school better scholars, fourth-form fags grew scarce and the junior fifth were ordered, as the phrase was, to "go on hall." One champion stood upon his rights and refused; the indignant prefect proposed to thrash him publicly;

the juniors rose in a body and pinioned the prefects. Fond mammas and other declaimers against school tyranny will regret to hear that this spirited resistance was not appreciated by Dr. Williams; after a patient hearing of the pleas on both sides, he supported the prefects' authority, (it may be concluded that they had not really exceeded it,) and six of the ringleaders were expelled. One of them was the brother of a baronet, himself a Wykehamist. Dr. Williams was much pressed to reconsider his decision, but steadily refused. He resigned in 1836, and was subsequently elected Warden of New College, Oxford. George Moberly, Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College, (the present head-master) succeeded at Winchester.

2. PRESENT CONDITION.

Buildings, &c.

It has been already said that the orginal plan of Wykeham's college has undergone little alteration. Almost a copy, on a smaller scale, of the elder sister in Oxford, it is still, in its arrangements, half a fortress. The visitor who enters the massive gateway feels that he has stepped back at once, as far as all surrounding objects go, into the fourteenth century. Even the college boy whom he meets with his hands thrust into the depths of modern pockets hardly interferes with the illusion; his gown, at least, is medieval. You pass through the small outer court, which, though now occupied in part by the warden's lodgings, contained formerly little more than the extensive offices required to make so large a society independent,—through the middle gate-tower (whence St. Mary of Winton herself, a very graceful figure, with the Angel of the Salutation and the Founder on either side, looks down upon you) into the main quadrangle of the college. Turn to the right up that flight of stone steps, and you reach the hall, a noble room near sixty-three feet long, with a dais at the upper end, which supposes the presence of the warden and his fellows, as under the original system, which neither Bancroft's nor Laud's injunctions were able to restore. They only dine there now on special festivals. There are the old louvres still to be seen in the roof, whence the smoke used to escape from the charcoal fire in the middle. If you regret, for a passing moment, that it has been superseded by a stove, and that the smoke now finds its way underground, remember that for those who dine there such modern appliances are not altogether unsatisfactory. Look in at the ample kitchen at the foot of the steps as you return, and be sure that as good fare comes forth from its ranges now as when they cooked "a pair of porpoises" there (of all imaginable delicacies) to feast their visitor the Bishop in 1410. Taste the beer—the college still brews its own—and you will find it excellent. You will not be allowed to pass without being called upon to note the picture on the wall by the kitchen entrance, which you know well enough already from wood-cuts and all kinds of illustrations, the "Trusty Servant"—*Probus Famulus*—in his blue-and-red livery; that strange figure, a compound of all the virtues such as these degenerate days have never seen. He has the pig's snout, to signify that he cares not what he eats; a padlock on his lips, for silence; ass' ears, for patience; hind's feet, for swiftness; a right hand open, for honesty; a left hand grasping all manner of implements, to show that he can turn his hand to any thing; and a sword and shield, to fight his master's battles. What wages would such a treasure expect? But in modern service you are as like to meet the literal monster as the paragon whom he symbolizes. The origin and date of the figure are obscure· and (as may be seen from old prints) it

has undergone alterations in the details, in the process of repainting from time to time; but it is not peculiar to Winchester; a similar figure was not uncommonly painted in dining-halls in France during the sixteenth century.

Through a low ambulatory, under a portion of the hall, is the entrance to Wykeham's beautiful chapel, with its vaulted wooden roof of Irish oak and exquisite stained windows. Let us not utter, in such a place, an anathema against Warden Nicholas, though he did take up the brasses in the chancel, and cut away the beautiful stone-work of the stalls and reredos, (of which just enough remains to show you what it was,) in order to set up his Ionic wainscoting of oak; besides, the work is good of its kind, and has had no expense spared on it; he was only acting according to his lights, and was a liberal benefactor of his college in many ways. Nor let our enthusiasm for the past make us forget that there are devotion and heroism even in our own utilitarian age; do not criticise too strictly that arcade of floriated work in the ante-chapel, or pass unread that touching inscription underneath, the tribute of Wykehamists to their thirteen brethren whose names are there recorded as having died "in their harness" in the Crimea:—

Think upon them thou who art passing by to-day, child of the same family, bought by the same Lord; keep thy foot when thou goest into the house of God; there watch thine armor, and make thyself ready by prayer to fight and die the faithful soldier and servant of Christ and of thy country.

"Child," it should be remarked, is the kindly term used by Wykeham for his scholars, and long retained in use by the Wykehamists of early days; Ken always employs it in his "Manual."

The new stained window in Warden Thurburn's chantry is also interesting, not for its beauty, but as the tribute of gratitude from scholars and commoners to Charles Wordsworth (now Bishop of St. Andrews) on his resigning office as second master. Adjoining the chapel are the cloisters, surrounding the "garth" or burying-ground, in the middle of which stands the beautiful chantry built by John Fromond, priest, steward to the founder. There was to be sung a mass forever for the souls of himself and his wife, who were interred within. Suppressed, so far as it original purpose went, at the Reformation, it has been since used as the college library, and contains some curious and valuable MSS. The small room above was probably at first used as a *scriptorium;* it had been converted into a granary in 1570. In the quiet square within, and under the pavement of the cloisters, many a Wykehamist, old and young, sleeps his last sleep. During the last few years fever has been exceptionally fatal in the place—as many as eleven recent tablets may be counted on the cloister walls, bearing the names of young scholars thus early removed—in many cases where the hope of future excellence was brightest. Yet Winchester has never been reckoned unhealthy; Warton, in his notice of the college, speaks of there having been "scarce an instance of death there once in twenty years." The infirmary, or "Bethesda," as it was termed by its builder, Warden Harris, stands in a piece of ground adjoining Meads, and thither every case of illness is at once removed.

Daily Routine—Prefects.

Years have worked fewer changes at Winchester than at any other of our public schools. Until the last few years it maintained some curious primitive arrangements which many an old Wykehamist will regret now to miss. The

black jacks (still to be seen in the cellar and kitchen) have not long disappeared from hall, and tea has quite lately taken the place of beer. The hour of rising (5 at all seasons) had never altered from the founder's day until, in 1708, Sir John Trelawny, Bishop of Winchester, in his capacity of visitor, suggested and obtained from the college authorities the modification, that from Michaelmas to Lady-day it should be 6, and that the scholars should be "relieved from the servile and foul office of making their own beds, and keeping their chambers clean."

There are still the original number of eighteen prefects in college. The first ten are "in full power," as it is termed; the Latin form of admission to their office being—"*Esto præfectus cum plenâ potestate.*" Besides the responsibility of maintaining discipline, these have a general privilege of fagging all below them, with some few privileged exceptions, both in chambers and out. The five seniors—not invariably appointed from their standing in the school, but "with reference to their character and influence for good"*—are "officers." 1. Prefect of hall, who has a general superintendence over the school, and is the recognized organ of communication between boys and master; 2. Prefect of library; 3, of school; 4 and 5, of chapel. These ten have also power over commoners so far as discipline is concerned, but not to fag them; that being the right of the commoner prefects only, of whom there are at present thirteen—the number being always proportioned to the number of boys in commoners. The remaining eight college prefects (called in Winchester tongue *Bluchers*) have a more limited authority, confined to chambers and the quadrangle; the form of making these is—"*Præficio te sociis concameralibus.*" At least two prefects are located in each of the seven chambers—one from the first seven in rank, and one from the next seven; the juniors are also divided into ranks of seven, and out of each rank the prefects, according to their seniority, choose one each to fill up the numbers in their own chamber; so that each chamber has, to a certain extent, ties and associations of its own.

At present the hour for chapel is 6:45 in summer, and 7 in winter, (sometimes, in very cold weather, 7:30 by special license;) "first peal" always ringing three-quarters of an hour beforehand, when the junior in each chamber has to get up at once; but seldom does a senior turn out before "second peal," which leaves him some fifteen minutes for a hurried toilet. The chapel service lasts half an hour, and first school begins at 7:30; after which comes breakfast served in hall. Middle school is from 9 to 12, comprising two distinct lessons, one in classics, the other in mathematics or modern languages. Third school is from 3 o'clock until 6—also for two lessons as before. Tuesdays and Thursdays are half-holidays, or, as the Winchester term is, "half-*remedies*,"† when there is no third school; but an hour in summer and two hours in winter, (from 4 till 6,) called "books-chamber-time," is expected to be employed in working under the superintendence of the "Bible clerk,"‡ as the prefect in daily "course" is termed, who is responsible for a decent amount of order and silence at these hours. Whole "remedies" are occasionally given on a Tuesday or Thursday, at the request of the prefect of hall; when, in accordance

* See Dr. Moberly's admirable "Letters on Public Schools," p. 97.

† *i. e., Remissionis dies.* Saints' days only are called "holidays."

‡ He has a *seat* appropriated to him in school, near the door, with the inscription, ΤΩ ΑΕΙ ΑΝΑΓΝΩΣΤΗ. His original office was to read the Bible at meals.

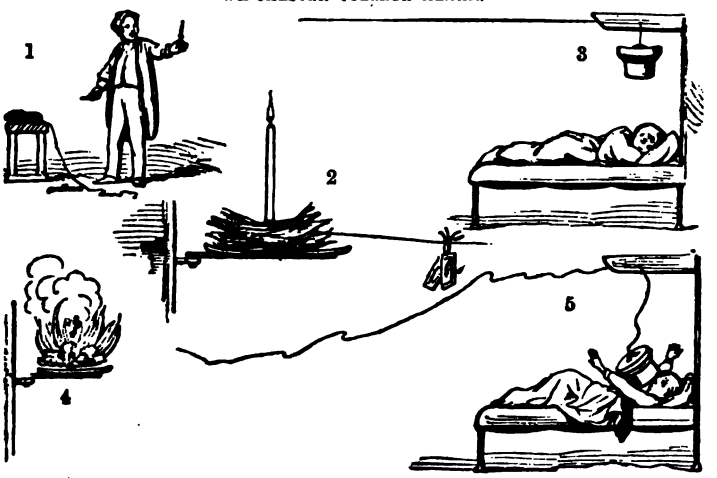
with ancient custom. the head-master intrusts him with a ring, which he keeps for the day, and the motto on which—*commendat rarior usus*—is a hint that such request is not to be made too often. On these days four hours are employed at "books-chambers." Saturday, by a singular exception to the practice of almost all schools, is not a half-remedy; but the afternoon school ends at five, at which hour there is chapel. On Sundays there is morning chapel at 8, breakfast at 9, and at 10 the whole school attends the service (litany and a sermon) at the cathedral, where place is allotted them in the choir, two oaken arm-chairs forming seats of honor for the two senior prefects. There is a Scripture or Greek Testament lesson at 4, and evening chapel at 5. On the afternoons of half-remedies, when the weather allows, the whole school, in pairs, each boy with his *socius*, (according to the founder's rule—*sociati omnes incedunto*,) under the command of the prefect of hall, start from college at 2 P. M. for "Hills;" the breezy downs about a mile south-east of the college, called St. Catherine's Hill, which has always formed the supplementary playground for Wykehamists. Here Whitehead used to lie and read his favorite "Atlantis," and compose abundant poetry perhaps not much worse than in his laureated days. Here also, in days within the memory of many, a badger-bait was the great excitement provided for less poetic spirits, on extraordinary occasions; but now the time (an hour and a half) is usually spent in walks in the adjoining country within certain bounds, with an occasional paper-chase or game at football. At other times a college boy is more strictly confined to bounds than is the case at any other public school; the gates being kept strictly locked, and no exit allowed except into "Meads"—the playground at the back of the college, containing about two acres, with good football and cricket-ground, and fives-courts—or into College street as far as the bookseller's. The present warden has given a degree of liberty which is much valued—"leave out" to the whole school from 12 to 1, within certain bounds which do not include the city; for any business which a boy may have in the streets special leave has to be obtained. Supper—consisting of bread and cheese, or beef (on alternate nights) and beer, for prefects; bread and butter and tea for inferiors—is served out at 6; which leaves the services of the juniors at liberty, if required, for toasting, &c., at the "prefect's mess" at 6:30; those official personages enjoying the privileges of having tea, coffee, &c., made for them by their "valets" in chambers from that hour until 7:30. From then until prayers at 8:45 is "toy-time"—supposed to be occupied in preparing the work for the next day, but when, it may be easily concluded, a good deal besides goes on not provided for by any college statutes however comprehensive. All the chambers are supposed to be locked and quiet by 9 o'clock. A certain quantity of bread is given out in hall at 6:30 for use in chambers, but there is no regular meal after the 6 o'clock tea or supper; though there are often surreptitious cookings of tea and coffee, and other accessories, on the "half-fagot" on the hearth; not less enjoyed because liable to sudden interruption and punishment by the second master if he makes, as he is supposed occasionally to do, a round of inspection. It was at such little suppers that Tom Warton, (who *ought* to have been a Wykehamist,) when living with his brother the Doctor, delighted to assist; hiding himself, like a great boy, when Dr. Warton happened to come round; and doing the "impositions" of Latin verse inflicted upon his young fellow-culprits. Bed-time is 9.15 for the juniors; for the prefects 10. In commoners the hours are much the same.

It will be found, on calculation, that the average day's work expected from a boy at Winchester is rather more than seven hours; quite sufficient if fairly employed. But when working for "standing up time," or election day, a zealous boy will give up a good deal more time than this.*

Dinner is now at 1:15, for which only half an hour is allowed. It is rather singular that, in this respect, a step has been backwards, so far as modern habits are concerned. In the last generation Wykeham's scholars dined more fashionably; the old "supper" at 6, consisting of roast mutton and bread, (no vegetables,) had become virtually their dinner—the original dinner of hot boiled beef at 12:45 being looked upon in the light of an early lunch; and since they then breakfasted so late as 10 o'clock, the appetite was not keen enough to relish a dish which is always found to be distasteful on constant repetition, so that commonly the plates of boiled beef went into the "tub" before-mentioned, and served to mend the fare of the prisoners in the county jail, while the boys made their luncheon on bread and cheese. Now, meat is only served once in the day, at the early dinner; beef on Mondays and Thursdays, and mutton on the other days, with the ordinary vegetables, bread, and cheese; and pudding twice in the week. The choristers still wait at table—the only representatives of that class of poor scholars, "servitors," whom our schools and universities formerly maintained. They are now usually the sons of tradesmen in the city, and have a separate school of their own in College street, though they still stand on the

* At these times a good deal of extra reading is done, and strange devices are adopted to secure early waking in the morning. One very original alarm—known as a "scheme"—is of venerable antiquity, and deserves notice, though not very easy to describe. A hat-box (or some such article)

WINCHESTER COLLEGE ALARM.



1. Cutting the hours, (an inch of candle is allowed per hour.) 2. The *functior*, or candle-sconce, to which the string is tied. The rush-light burns down to the bundle of loose paper, which burns the string. 3. The "scheme" arranged. 4. The paper alight. 5. The "scheme" *calls*.

is hung by a string over a boy's head as he lies in bed, the string being fastened to the wall, and a rush-light so arranged as to burn it through at a certain hour; when down comes the hat-box on the sleeper's head. The boy who wishes to be called may probably be a prefect; but it need hardly be said that the head upon which the hat-box descends is a junior's.

college roll as "third book;" but formerly they seem to have been of somewhat higher grade, were eligible to scholarships, and in the roll of 1683 several of them appear in fifth and fourth book. Their little gray dresses are furnished them from a legacy of good John Fromond aforesaid.

Election to Scholarships.

The election day, both for Winchester and New College, is on the Tuesday next after the 7th of July, (St. Thomas à Beckett,) when the warden of New College, Oxford, with two of his fellows, called the "posers," (or at one time "supervisors,") arrive at the college, when they are received with an oration "*ad portas*" by the senior scholar.*

In old times they always rode down from Oxford with their servants behind them, making Newbury their half-way house, where they seem to have supped upon a very liberal scale. A regulation of the founder provided that they shall not bring with them more than six horses. They had presents given them by the Winchester society; for instance, in 1417, a scarlet cap for the warden, and a "hurry" (or cap) for each of the posers; and they, in their turn, complimented "the warden and Mrs. Harris," and "Mr. and Mrs. Schoolmaster," (in 1633,) with Oxford gloves. In the year of the plague, when Winchester was infected, the election was held at Newbury; the electors from the two colleges meeting there. The practice of riding down on horseback was continued by Dr. Gauntlett, Warden of New College, until 1822, when he was in his 70th year; he also slept at Newbury by the way, and gave a dinner there to all Wykehamists who chose to attend.

The Oxford visitors, on their arrival, proceed at once to "Election Chamber" to hear any complaint which the boys may have to prefer. This is called the "scrutiny;" the seven senior prefects, and the seven juniors in chambers, (one from each chamber,) are separately questioned; but complaints are seldom made. Next morning the examination for election of scholars to New College begins—no longer in the renowned "Election Chamber" itself, but in the long "Warden's Gallery," as more convenient for the purpose; all prefects who are of standing to leave the school are examined, with any others who choose. As a rule, none can be elected who are over eighteen on the day of election; all others are superannuated. Boys, however, who bear a good character, and have passed a creditable examination at the election before their eighteenth birthday, can stand again next year. The vacancies used to be about nine in two years, but the uncertainty attending this was the cause of many severe disappointments; now, six scholars are elected every year, and the competition is opened to the commoners. This examination usually ends on Saturday evening, and on Monday the "roll" comes out with the names of those elected to Oxford; on Tuesday the election to fill vacancies on the Winchester roll begins. This is now entirely a matter of competitive scholarship; all boys from ten to fourteen are eligible, the candidates being subjected to two graduations of examination, according to age. There are, on an average, about fourteen vacancies in college in the course of the year; and a more than sufficient number of boys are placed "on the roll," in the order of merit, to succeed to these vacancies as they occur.

* Two other speeches are spoken in school just before their arrival:—1. "*Fundatoris laudes,*" by the senior "Founder's kin" scholar; 2. "*Elizabetha et Jacobi laudes,*" (commonly known as 'Elizabeth and Jacob,") by the second scholar on the roll.

Election day is the great college festival—both wardens, the posers, and resident fellows, all dine on the daïs in hall, the boys sitting at their tables below, with somewhat better fare than ordinary, especially one ancient dish—a kind of mince-meat—highly popular under the name of "stuckling." One table, by a curious traditionary custom, is called the "children's table"—the wardens and fellows present each choosing one of the junior scholars for their "child," and presenting him with a guinea and a luxurious dinner at this privileged board.

Games.

The games at Winchester, as at most public schools, are almost entirely confined to cricket, football, and fives. The annual matches with Eton and Harrow, formerly played at Lord's, have made cricket the most popular and historical. The first match on record, as played against any other school, was their victory over Harrow in 1825, on Lord's ground, when the two brothers Wordsworth were captains of their respective elevens. Next year they beat Harrow and Eton successively at Lord's; on the whole, the laurels have been pretty evenly divided amongst all three schools, Eton having rather the best of it, as, from their great superiority in numbers, it would be only reasonable to expect. College and commoners join, of course, to form the Winchester eleven. Of late the authorities have thought it undesirable, for many reasons, that these matches should be played in London, but the Eton and Winchester elevens have been allowed to meet alternately on each other's ground and keep up the friendly contest. The largest innings on record in any public schools' match is that of E. B. Trevilian, who played in the eleven four years running, and finished with 126 to his name, against Eton, in 1862. None showed more enthusiastic interest in these matches than the late excellent warden, Robert Speckott Barter—loved and respected by all who knew him from the time that he was a boy in college, (whence he was elected to Oxford, over the heads of many seniors, at sixteen,) and whose death in 1860 was a public loss to Winchester. He had seldom missed a match at Lord's from the time he played in the school eleven himself. He was a tremendous hitter in his day; and the remarkable punishment which he dealt out to the ball, when he was lucky enough to catch it on the "half-volley," has given to a long hit of this character at Winchester (and even elsewhere) the name of "a *Barter*." His hospitality to the stranger eleven, when they came down to Winchester to play, endeared him to many Etonians in only a less degree than his own Wykehamists. Kindly and gentle as his nature was, beaming out from every line of his joyous face, he could be rather terrible upon just occasion. Traveling outside the coach to Oxford when quite a young man, a fellow-passenger persisted in using language of gross profanity, undeterred by his quiet remonstrance At last that powerful arm seized the ribald by the collar, and, holding him out over the coach-wheel, Barter vowed to *drop him* if he did not promise to be silent. Such maintenance of order and decency by the strong hand falls in exactly with the humor of all honest-hearted school boys; and the story did as much for their warden's popularity with the successive generations of Wykehamists as the hardest "drive" he ever made on the cricket-ground.

The Winchester football game is peculiar. It is played "in canvas," as it is called. A portion of Meads, some eighty feet by twenty-five, is marked off by screens of canvas on each side, within which the game is played, the two other

ends forming the lines of goal, across which the ball is to be kicked. It is placed in the middle of the ground to begin with, and a "*hot*" formed round it by the players stooping down all close together, with their heads down, and at a given signal trying to force the ball or each other away. The canvas screens answer to the Rugby "line of touch." When the ball escapes over these, it is returned into play by juniors stationed for the purpose, and a *hot* is formed afresh. But no verbal description could give an adequate notion of the game. Matches are usually played with six only on each side; and in this respect the Winchester game differs entirely from the exciting scene of the Rugby matches, where a hundred players, in their parti-colored caps and jerseys, may be seen carrying on the struggle at once. But the game is fierce enough after its own fashion, there having been two broken legs during the present season. The great annual match is that between the "first sixes" of commoners and college, played on "egg-flip day," as the founder's commemoration day (the first Thursday in December) is popularly called. But the more attractive match (at any rate to a stranger) is between twenty-two of each, on the 5th of November.

Breaking-up for Vacation.

The breaking-up ceremonies at Winchester are peculiar and interesting, though some of their picturesque medievalism has disappeared of late years. Some, of intermediate date, are perhaps less to be regretted. The scholars no longer rush out of gates after early chapel, on the last dark morning of the winter half-year, each with a blazing birch broom, up College street, and along the wall of the close up to the old White Hart Inn, where a sumptuous breakfast was prepared before the chaises started for their respective destination. This curious torch-race, (in which the burning birch must have had a symbolical meaning,) long the terror of old ladies who lived on the line of the course, gave place subsequently to a race of the senior boys in sedan chairs. Top-boots are now no longer considered by young gentlemen of twelve "your only wear" to go home in; although the term for them—*gomers*, (*i. e.*, *go-homers*)—still survives in the Winchester dictionary. Great were the struggles of the happy possessors, with the aid of soap and other lubricators, to get into them; and the bootmakers were always in attendance on that morning to assist in the operation. Still greater must have been the difficulty in some instances, when boys from a distance had traveled two days and a night on the top of a coach, to get them off again. Railway stations and cabs have destroyed much of the poetry of "going-home." But the beautiful old hymn, "*Jam lucis orto sidere*," is still sung in procession round the "sands" of chamber-court, on the last morning of the summer half-year, on coming out of chapel, by the whole body; the head and second masters, followed by the grace-singers, leading the way. On the six last Saturdays, just before going to Hills, the old Wykehamist melody, which all schools have borrowed from them in some form or other, "Dulce Domum," is poured forth lustily in hall, the old "Domum tree" having long disappeared.

EXTRACTS *from "Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners on Certain Colleges and Schools*—1864."

THE COLLEGE.

Endowments, Revenues, and Expenditure.—The endowments of Winchester College consist of landed property and funded stock, which produced, on an average of the seven years ended in 1860, a gross annual income of £15,494 17*s.* 6*d.*

The total expenditure for 1860 (excluding nearly £1,200 spent in purchase of land and in obtaining the renewal of a lease) was £20,098 6*s.* 7*d.*, exceeding the receipts by £2,476 1*s.* 2*d.* The excess was paid out of a balance which remained in hand from previous years.

Among the items are expenses of management, £2,610; provisions, lighting, and warming, servants, &c., £3,347; stipends to head-master and other masters, £1,035; warden's share of fines, &c., £1,750; ten fellows' share of fines, &c., £6,598.

The college likewise holds, on special trusts for exhibitioners and other purposes, the large sum of £60,132, with land which produces a net income of £204 14*s.* 11*d.*

Governing Body.—The warden and fellows (now ten but to be reduced to six) are the governing body of the college.

The warden has the general government of the foundation, like the head of a college, and is elected by the fellows of New College, and to be a candidate he must be a graduate in theology or law, or a Master of Arts, in priest's orders, and thirty years of age. By the ancient statutes, besides a suitable provision for his table, he received £20 a year, and twelve yards of cloth. The salary is now largely increased, besides a house and household expenses, his shares of leasehold fines and allowances, which in 1860 was £1,750.

The fellows are elected for life, and the vacancies are filled by the warden and fellows; they are non-resident, and visit Winchester four times a year, and when summoned. They hold seven out of thirteen livings in the gift of the college, (of the average value of about £300,) and receive annually at least £500 each from the "Fines and Allowances." They elect the head and second master, and a majority must consent to the expulsion of a scholar.

Choristers.—The choristers at Winchester are admitted out of regard for charity—"*intuitu charitatis*," to make the beds of the fellows, and help to wait in hall, and to live upon the "fragments and relics" of the fellows' and scholars' tables, if these were sufficient for them; if not, they were to have suitable nourishment at the expense of the college. The choristers are now boarded, lodged, educated, and at the proper age apprenticed, at the cost of the college. The expense under this head in 1860, including the schoolmaster's salary, board during the holidays, books, and medical attendance, bills for clothing and apprentice fees, was £336 3*s.* 8*d.*

Scholars.—The scholars are elected by the warden, sub-warden, and head-master of Winchester College, and the warden and two fellows of New College. By the ordinance of 1857 the boy must be over eight and under fourteen years of age, with aptitude for study. No inquiry is made as to pecuniary circumstances. Until 1854 the electors nominated the scholars without a competitive examination; in that year the system was exchanged for open competition. Eton, which owes so large a debt to Winchester, set her in return the example

of this great and beneficial change, which is clearly agreeable to the spirit, and not at variance with the letter, of the statutes of both colleges. The Bishop of Winchester, who was on intimate terms with Dr. Hawtrey, (Eton,) and had heard from him of its success, proposed of his own accord the introduction of it, and it was carried into effect against the expressed opinion of the head-master; "I feared," writes Dr. Moberly,—

That we should be liable to have boys brought in among us of whose character and connections we had no assurance, and who might prove to be very undesirable members of our community, and I wished that in our elections (a thing which I still think much to be desired in the competitions of older candidates for public positions) a scheme might be devised to combine the advantages of a very real competition with the responsibility of nomination. But I am bound to acknowledge that with us the change has been unmixedly beneficial. The candidates are very young, and we find that we have the best of securities for the character and connections of such young boys, when we find them capable, from ten to fourteen years old, of winning such a race on such subjects. It is not in ill-conducted families that little fellows of that age learn their grammars so well, or know how to write Latin verses. Let me offer my testimony without reserve. The open elections have been excellently successful. In point of ability, good conduct, and general promise, we have lost nothing, and we have gained much. We do not know what it is to have a thoroughly stupid boy a scholar.—*Letters to Sir W. Heathcote*, pp. 5, 6.

The whole school has reaped great benefit from it. "Of old we had a small connection and a considerable narrowness in the system altogether. We were comparatively poor in boys. This open competition brings boys of all abilities, of all families, from all parts of the country, and so spreads our connection very widely."

In 1857 the system of open competition was rendered obligatory on the college by an ordinance of the Oxford University Commission, which had been appointed by act of Parliament in 1854.

It is the custom to give previous notice of every election in the "Times," and to send circulars conveying further information to every person who makes inquiries on the subject.

The "children,"* as they were formerly called, still eat their dinners on little trenchers of wood, which they would be unwilling to exchange for plates, and sleep in the six chambers originally allotted to them, (to which, however, the ancient school-room has since been added as a seventh,) on oaken bedsteads more than two centuries old. Until the sixteenth century they slept on bundles of straw, and their chambers were unfloored; the bedsteads and flooring were the gifts of a famous Wykehamist, Dean Fleshmonger. In the early part of the seventeenth century a scholar paid, on his entrance, for his bedding, for his surplice, for the making of his gown, for candles, and for his "scob" (box) to hold his books in school. He paid also 1*s.* to his predecessor for "glasse windowes," and 14*s.* "for learning to write." There is a visitor's letter extant, dated early in the eighteenth century, which orders that bed-makers should be appointed for the chambers, "and the children relieved from the servile and foul office of making their own beds, and keeping the chambers clean." We gather, however, from the warden's evidence, that no bed-makers were in fact provided till lately. The choristers were previously made to perform this office.

* "If you are a commoner you may say your prayers in your own chamber, but if you are a child or a chorister then," &c.—Bishop Ken's *Manual*, quoted in Mackenzie Walcott's *William of Wykeham and his Colleges*, p. 196. So also Christopher Johnson, (*De Collegio*)—"Nemine ceu Pueri vocitetis sive Choristæ."

The statutes of Winchester, like those of Eton, prohibit the master and usher, in the most precise and stringent terms, from "exacting, asking, or claiming" any payment for instruction from the scholars, their parents, or friends; the Eton clause was in fact a copy of the Winchester clause, with the insertion of words extending the privilege of free instruction to non-foundationers. It was nevertheless the practice at Winchester for a charge of £10 to be put into the bills of each scholar, for "Masters' gratuities," the words "if allowed" being parenthetically inserted, out of respect for the statutory prohibition. Dr. Goddard, who was head-master for not more than seventeen years, (from 1793 to 1810,) received the money during his tenure of office; but he felt that if not illegal, it was morally questionable, and after his retirement, but several years (Walcott says ten) before his death, he made a voluntary gift to the college of £25,000 stock, in trust to pay the dividends to the head and second masters for the time being. The head-master now receives from this source £450, and the second master £300. From that time no charge has been made for the instruction of the scholars except in respect of modern languages.

THE SCHOOL.

"The School" at Winchester is composed of boys—a limited number—who were originally admitted as pupils, but without charge to the college funds, and are termed commoners. They were the sons of nobles and special friends of the college, "filii nobilium et valentium personarum dicti Collegii specialium amicorum." They board with the head-master, and in four other houses specially rented for their accommodation, and numbered in 1861, 131—to be increased to 200. The profits on the boarders are about £25 each.

Government of the School.—The general government of the school is vested in the head-master, subject to such control as is exercised over him by the warden, or by the warden and fellows.

The head-master "must be sufficiently instructed in grammar, and experienced in teaching;" and as officer of the college he is "hired and removable" by the warden and fellows, (who also elect the second master,) and subject to the superintendence of the former. But as the head of the commoners he claims to be exempt from any interference with "the school" proper. "If you put an adequate man as master at the head of a school of this kind he ought to be supreme," "subject to general rules laid down for his guidance, and removable by a body of men."

It is not the practice, as at Rugby and Harrow, for the head-master and assistants to meet for the discussion of matters affecting the studies of the school. "We are all very much together," Dr. Moberly says, "and often talk over things relating to the school." "No doubt," he observes in his written answers, "the head-master would always be anxious that the opinion of the under-masters in charge of classes should have great weight in these matters. Practically, indeed, the under-masters, with the control and sanction of the head-master, arrange these things for their classes." And he is not sure that it would not have been better if on his part there had been rather more systematic interference.

Emoluments of Masters.—The head-master has a house large enough for his family and about one hundred boarders. His net income from all sources (boarders, entrance fee, Goddard Fund, £450) is about £3,000. The second

master receives about £1,500; the mathematical tutor, £210; and the college tutor, £200.

Course of Study.—The course of study at Winchester is principally classical, but every boy in the school learns, during the whole time that he remains there, both arithmetic and mathematics, and one modern language, either French or German, at the option of his parents.

The classical staff comprises, beside the head and second masters, a third and a fourth master respectively, taking classes in school, an assistant to the head-master, who likewise takes a class, and three composition masters, who are employed in looking over and correcting the exercises and compositions of the whole school, except the upper sixth. One of these, called the "college tutor," performs this office for the scholars; the other two, called "tutors in commoners," for the commoners. The two latter are also employed to preserve order and discipline in the head-master's boarding-house.

In 1861 the arrangement of forms (or "books," as they are called at Winchester) and sub-divisions of forms was as follows:—

Sixth Form, (or Book,)		Upper Division. Lower Division.
Fifth Book,	Senior Part. Middle Part. Junior Part.	Senior Division. Junior Division.
Fourth Book,		Senior Division. Junior Division.

There were no lower forms. The whole school was thus distributed into eight ascending divisions.*

The distribution of classes among the masters was follows:—The first three divisions, numbering altogether seventy-five boys, were nominally under the head-master; he in fact took the first and third, numbering together fifty-six boys, an assistant having almost exclusive charge of the second. The fourth, fifth, and sixth divisions, numbering eighty-five boys, were under the second master; the seventh and eighth (thirty-seven boys) were under the third master. There was at that time no fourth master.

Boy Tutors—Private Tutors.—To each of the ten senior boys in college some of the juniors are assigned as pupils. It is his duty to overlook and correct a certain part of their exercises before they are shown up, and to help his pupils when they want help in their lessons. He is responsible also, in some measure, for their general conduct and diligence, and is the person of whom the head-master would make inquiries if he had reason to think that any of them were going on amiss. For each pupil so placed under his charge the "Boy Tutor" receives two guineas a year from the pupil's parents. This practice has been traced to a provision in the statutes whereby the founder directs, that "to each scholar of his own kindred there should always be assigned, by the warden and head-master, one of the discreeter and more advanced scholars to superintend and instruct them in grammar, under the head-marter, all the time that they should remain in the college." Each of these instructors was to receive for each pupil 6*s.* 8*d.* a year out of the funds of the college. The functions of the boy tutor were much circumscribed about twenty-six years ago by the appointment of the college tutor or scholars' composition master—a change introduced

* In the sixteenth century there were four forms—the sixth, fifth, fourth, and "second fourth" (*quarta secunda.*)—Walcott, p. 227.

by the then warden on the advice of the second master, the present Bishop of St. Andrew's, who had been educated at Harrow, and against the opinion, though not against the positive dissent, of Dr. Moberly, who was then, as now, head-master. Formerly the boy tutor took all the compositions of his pupils; now he takes only a small part of them. Dr. Moberly regrets the older system, and thinks that much has been lost by abandoning it. "The boy tutor would correct mistakes of the little boys; now he makes all the blunders himself. Again, he dealt with the pupil as a boy; whereas the college tutor, who has these things to do, deals with him as a man. A boy dealing with a boy is more effective in that way than a man dealing with boys."

Private tuition, in the ordinary sense of the words, was, until lately, quite unknown at Winchester. At present three of the masters—the head-master's assistant, the fourth master, and the mathematical master—take a few private pupils, scholars and commoners—perhaps twenty in all—each of whom pays £5 for the half-year, and works with his tutor from two to three hours a week.

Pulpiteers.—Among the peculiarities of Winchester teaching is the custom of assembling all the boys of the first three divisions for construing lessons in certain authors, when some of the seniors construe first in presence of all the rest. Another is the practice of writing a Latin epigram, called a "vulgus," thrice a week, which is thought to bring out cleverness and cultivate neatness of expression. Another, again, is that of devoting a week, or a week and a half, in the summer, to what is called "standing-up." The work of "standing-up week" consists chiefly in repeating portions of Greek and Latin grammar, and in repeating and construing considerable quantities of Latin and Greek verse or prose, which the boy has been able to store up in his memory. One lesson of English verse is allowed to be taken up, and one of Euclid.

History.—Neither ancient or modern history is taught in set lessons. Questions in portions of English history, specified beforehand, are set for the half-yearly examinations, as well as for the Goddard Scholarship, and there is also a prize for an English essay on a historical subject.

Reading and Speaking.—An annual prize is given for reading well, and during Easter time (six weeks in the Spring) there is speaking every Saturday by chambers, and at the close there is public speaking by the twenty best, and two medals are awarded.

Arithmetic and Mathematics.—Seven or eight hours in the week are devoted to arithmetic and other mathematical subjects in every division of the school, and the marks count for about one-third of the weekly total.

French and German.—Every boy is obliged to learn either French or German. In 1862 there was forty in German. The marks count for about one-eighth in the weekly total. There are two French masters and one German.

Natural Science.—The Oxford University Commission for Winchester College proposed that three of the fellowships should be filled with especial reference to their being able and required to teach the natural sciences. In their letter addressed to the governing body they say:—"To them it appears that good elementary instruction in physical science is most essential in the case of many boys, desirable in all cases, and perfectly compatible with a first-rate classical education. The object might be effected without prejudice to other studies, by setting apart two or three hours every week for lectures in the physical sciences, by putting good elementary works on the subject into the hands of the boys, and by examining them on the lectures once at least in every half-year."

This suggestion was formally but not heartily accepted, as the head-master (Dr. Moberly) declared "that except for those who have a taste and intend to pursue the physical sciences as amateurs or professionally, such instruction is worthless as education." Prizes are now given, to encourage botanical excursions, for the best collection of wild flowers.

Deviations from Regular Course.—This school has no departments. The head-master does not think it large enough to be divided into separate schools, although individual students are allowed to commute some part of the classical course for mathematical or other work duly testified, at the discretion of the master.

System of Promotion—Examinations—Prizes.—A boy rises in this school, not by seniority, but by his success in incessant competition, in which every lesson counts for a certain numerical value, and which never pauses or terminates till he reaches the sixth form. Places are taken in every division below, and each boy receives for each lesson a number answering to the place he holds in the division at the end of the lesson. Thus, if he is twentieth from the bottom he receives twenty marks. But in mathematical and modern language classes the number of marks is less for the place, the maximum being the relative value attached to these studies as compared with classics—mathematics being one-fourth, and French and German one-eighth. The boy's daily record is called his "classicus paper," and his promotion at the end of the half-year depends on the number of marks obtained, and his success in "standing-up," a repeating from memory the largest portions of certain specified books.

Until lately there were no general periodical examinations, although examinations for prizes are given, the stimulus of which is felt by only the best portion of the school.

The scholarships to New College are now eligible only on a real competitive examination, and open to commoners as well as collegians. They expire at the age of eighteen.

Hours of Work and Play.—These have been already given. The boys prepare as well as say their lessons at school, and for every lesson of an hour long an hour of preparation is given. The hard-working boys at Winchester contend successfully with the idle boys in the games of the school.

Monitorial System.—The earliest type of the monitorial system of the public schools of England is found in Winchester, and had its origin in the original statutes of the founder. "In each of the lower chambers let there be at least three scholars of good character, more advanced than the rest in age, discretion, and knowledge, who may superintend their chamber-fellows in their studies, and oversee them diligently, and may, from time to time, certify and inform the warden, sub-warden, and head-master respecting their behavior and conversation and progress in study."

There were six chambers, and therefore eighteen "prefects," and the number was not increased when the original school-room was turned into a seventh chamber. The eighteen chamber-prefects still exist; of these, eight have power only in the inner quadrangle, practically only in the chambers; the remaining ten (*plenâ potestate præfecti*) have power every where; and five of the ten, called officers, are invested also with special authority, and have charge respectively of the hall, school-room, library, and chapel. The prefect of hall is the chief of these five, and has large powers of general superintendence; he is "the governor

of the school among the boys," and their organ of communication with the head-master. All the prefects, except the five and the ten respectively, obtain their positions by seniority; the five officers are chosen by the warden, with the advice of the head-master, with reference to their character and power of influencing their school-fellows. All are invested with authority by the warden in a traditional and appropriate form of words, (*præficio te sociis concameralibus—præficio te aulæ*, &c.) They are empowered to punish corporally. It is not the practice for them to set impositions.

Dr. Moberly deems it of "vital importance," as substituting a responsible authority, bestowed according to character and progress in the school, for the irresponsible power of mere size and strength; as providing for the maintenance of discipline without espionage; as a safeguard against bullying; and as accustoming boys to exercise over others a control checked by usage and opinion. He admits, at the same time, that it requires careful watching; that it might become extremely mischievous were the prefects themselves to be ill-conducted or disorderly; and that it is necessary, to prevent this, that the boys should be well-trained, the masters watchful, and the right of appeal to the head-master (though seldom used) kept always open. Mr. Fearon's experience is, that it works well, and he does not remember any instance of its having been abused. Mr. Thresher, who was a commoner, agrees in this opinion. It is submitted to cheerfully; and if it is not a perfect safeguard against bullying and some of the minor offenses which it would be deemed the prefect's duty to punish, we believe that it serves its intended purposes to a very considerable degree, that there is little bullying, and that the general tone of opinion and conduct is sound.

Fagging.—The system of fagging among the scholars is connected with that of government by prefects. The eighteen prefects, and they only, have power to fag; all the scholars who are not prefects are, strictly speaking, liable to be fagged, but the burden falls chiefly on those most recently elected, whatever may be their position in the school. The system is somewhat complicated. A boy may be "valet" to one prefect, whom he waits on in his chamber; "breakfast fag" to another, whom he attends at tea—not at breakfast—in hall; and liable also to be sent on errands, and to be obliged to field at cricket, at the bidding of any prefect who may happen to want those services. This would ordinarily be the case with a boy who was not one of the seven juniors, but was just above them. If he were one of the seven juniors, he would be general fag (instead of "valet") in his own chamber. The fagging in college is on a different principle from the fagging in commoners, the one depending on length of standing in college, the other on position in the school; a boy who, being a commoner, is elected a scholar, may have to go through a second period of servitude, after having already served his time, a prospect which might well deter a clever boy from standing for college.

Punishments.—The chief punishments at Winchester, as elsewhere, are flogging and impositions. The practice of giving impositions to be written out is, however, adopted more sparingly, and the better alternative of setting them to be learnt by heart more frequently, than in some other schools. Flogging, which is administered publicly (as a general rule) and by the head and second masters only, has greatly diminished in frequency. "When I was here," says Dr. Moberly, "in my boy-time, there was a very large number of boys flogged, and nobody cared about it." "I have known twenty in a day, and all for slight offenses.

Sometimes boys did not answer to their names in time. Now we punish in this way very rarely. There are now," he adds, "from ten to twenty floggings in a year, perhaps in some years a few more. The diminution has had a good effect."

Chapel Service.—The boys go to chapel every morning for a short service, which consists of a part of the Liturgy with chanting. It omits, however, both the Psalms and the lessons for the day, and in this respect Dr. Moberly desires some alteration. On Sundays there are two choral services in chapel, at 8 A. M. and 5 P. M., and the boys also go once to the cathedral, where they have the Litany, the Communion Service, and a sermon. The late warden introduced the practice of having a sermon also at the chapel service on Sunday evenings, and the present warden has continued it, and has arranged a cycle of preachers to share the duty with himself.

Dr. Moberly prepares the oldest boys with great care for confirmation, reads the Greek Testament for a half-hour every morning with the highest three divisions, and gives catechetical teaching on Monday mornings to the boys who have not been confirmed, and has a daily Bible reading with the fourth form, and prayers were always said at 9 o'clock in the evening before going to bed.

Commoners' Boarding-Houses.—The charge for each boy in the head-master's house is £84, in the other boarding-houses £105. This includes all the school charges. German and drawing are the only extras, and are paid for as such by those who learn them. The £105 includes also medical attendance. Dr. Moberly states, that including traveling money, pocket money, and tradesmen's bills, the total expenses of a boy boarding in his house average about £115 a year. Every new boy in the head-master's house pays £11 18*s.* 6*d.* for entrance fees.

Out of the £105 charged for each of the other boarders, £26 9*s.* 6*d.* is paid to the staff, including £10 10*s.* to the head-master, and leaving a balance of £78 10*s.* 6*d.* The boarding master has likewise paid on the entrance of each new boy £6 11*s.*, which has been divided in certain proportions among the head, second, and third masters. The estimated profits on each boy were nearly £23, after payment of house rent and repairs, servants' food and wages, and two guineas for medical attendance on the boys.

Of the three boarding-houses now open in addition to the head-master's, two are kept by assistant masters, the third by a gentleman who was formerly a "Tutor in Commmoners," but now has no educational duties beyond superintending the work of the boys in his house.

The boys sleep five or six in a room, and do not use their bedrooms during the daytime. The twenty seniors in the head-master's house have little private studies; the others, when they are not in school, sit in a common hall, where each has his "toy" or cupboard. With the scholars it is otherwise; they sit in their chambers after six in the evening. The want of privacy is probably less felt at Winchester, from the fact that the lessons are prepared as well as said in school.

Results—Of the undergraduates at Oxford in Michælmas term, 1861, sixty had been educated at Winchester; of those at Cambridge, two. The average number of the boys leaving Winchester of late years who have gone to the Universities we compute to be about seventeen a year, and the average proportion to be about forty-three per cent. Of those who left Winchester in the year which ended at the summer holidays, 1862, the proportion who went to the Universities was forty-one per cent.

Within the ten years ending in 1861, Winchester obtained at Oxford in the final examinations, seven classical "Firsts," one mathematical and two in law and modern history; in Moderations, thirteen classical and two mathematical "Firsts;" one Craven scholarship, one Latin verse and three Latin essay prizes, and several prizes for English essays, with other distinctions. We have no return of honors gained at Cambridge, and the number of boys who go thither is probably too small to supply material for a return.

Of the nine Winchester boys who were candidates for commissions in the army, or admission to Sandhurst and Woolwich, in the course of three years, four failed, and five passed.

Recommendations.—All the general recommendations made by the Commissioners in their report, are applicable to Winchester with the single exception of XXIV. Among the special recommendations are, "that the warden shall be elected by the governing body, shall reside at Winchester, and not be necessarily a graduate of the school, but educated at Oxford and Cambridge, with a salary of £1,700, and a house."

"That the advertisements respecting the elections to scholarships and exhibitions should afford information respecting the limits of age, the subjects of examination, the value of the scholarships or exhibitions, and, as far as possible, the number of vacancies; and that such advertisements should be inserted in the newspapers three months at least before the day of election.

That the exhibitions should be awarded by competitive examination, open to both scholars and commoners.

That natural science should be open to all.

That the promotion of the boys from division to division should not depend wholly, as it has hitherto done, upon the marks gained for class-work and compositions during the half year, but should depend also in part upon their performances in a special competitive examination occurring once at least in the year.

That a larger amount of translation from English into Latin and Greek verse and prose should be introduced; that the amount of original composition in these two languages should be diminished; and that some part of the original composition in them should be exchanged for translations from Greek and Latin into English, both oral translation (as distinct from construing) and written, and that in estimating the merit of such translations, due regard should be paid to the correctness and purity of the English.

That English composition should be cultivated in the junior division of the sixth form.

That the practice of learning by heart passages from Latin and English authors should be introduced in the sixth form.

That arrangements should be made by which the scholars under the sixth form, instead of being left almost wholly to themselves after six in the evening, should prepare their lessons for the next day in the presence of a tutor or master, as is now the practice in commoners."

IX. EDUCATIONAL LESSONS FOR SOUTH AMERICA.

DRAWN FROM THE EXPERIENCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

LAS ESCUELAS, BASE DE LA PROSPENDAD I DE LA REPUBLICA DE LOS ETADOS UNIDOS; Informe al Ministro de Instruccion publica de la Republica Argentina, pasado de D. F. SARMIENTO, Plenopotenciario i Enviado extraordinario cerca de los Gobiernos de Chile, Peru, i Etados Unidos. New York, 1866. *Schools the Basis of the Prosperity of the Republic of the United States;* a Report to the Minister of Public Instruction (Dr. Don Eduardo Costa) of the Argentine Republic, drawn up by D. F. Sarmiento, Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy extraordinary to the Governments of Chili, Peru, and the United States. New York, 1866.

Our Minister Plenipotentiary from the Argentine Republic makes his mission no sinecure, for he employs his time in useful labors for the elevation of his countrymen, through education, all whose improvements he watches and seizes upon with the greatest enthusiasm, to transmit them in some form to that wide field of labor, the rising Republics of South America. The present work describes the condition of our more favored land in contrast with those regions which have been victimized by imperial and ecclesiastical power. One is tempted to exclaim that better would it have been for those unhappy countries to remain another century, or many centuries, under their former circumstances, than to be civilized or christianized at such terrible expense; but "God disposes," though man proposes, and such having been their sad introduction to the benefits of Christian and civilized culture, we must humbly learn the lesson which is always taught by the fearful consequences of wrong-doing. Mr. Sarmiento is a man of broad views and experimental philosophy. His life has been a very checkered and varied one. He is cosmopolitan. He can stand aside and look upon his own country as posterity alone can generally look upon what is passing at the present time. This extraordinary power, which is not merely gained by circumstances, but partly from a highly gifted nature, enables him to do that for his country which perhaps no other man in it is capable of doing; and the more his countrymen put themselves under his leadership, morally, intellectually, politically, the sooner they will emerge from the sea of evils in which they are now plunged, but from which, chiefly by his assistance, they occasionally lift their heads. The perusal of this work will amply justify these remarks.

It consists of alternate translations from educational addresses of our most eminent men, and chapters upon the condition of South America, the Argentine Republic especially, in reference to the subject of education. The first article is a letter to Don Eduardo Costa, the present Minister of Instruction in the Republic, in which he vividly depicts the state of things here, contrasting them with that of his own country, yet doing ample justice to the efforts already

made there. These efforts are evidently due, one might say wholly due, to his own exertions and persevering labors for thirty years. He appeals eloquently for appropriations of money for the object, and contrasts the grants already made with the enormous sums that are appropriated yearly for material improvement, railroads, suppression of Indian invasions, &c.

A "Confidential Note to the Ministers Plenipotentiary of the South American Congress in Lima" is an appeal to them to join in the great educational movement he is endeavoring to initiate, and an offer of his services while in the United States to aid them all.

He then gives the plan of Barnard's Journal of Education as a model for a similar work, which is followed by an "Introduction upon the New Career marked out for South America." He says:—

A young mathematician, feeling the strength of his powers, once asked Arago "what he could do to be useful to science?" The sage answered, "There remains one astronomical problem in the heavens to be resolved—the pertubations of Uranus. Devote yourself to the search for a hypothetical planet, and if you fix it by calculation, science will have taken a great step." The name of that youth, Leverrier, is invested with the splendors of immortality, and Neptune is the planet that he found in the depths of space. Who shall explain the aberrations of South America, whose disorderly movements make it a by-word in the world's mouth, even to the point of denying those Republics a place as fixed bodies in the universe of nations, and desiring that they may be absorbed, one by one, into those already recognized?

Painful and humiliating would be the task of reproducing the hopes, the disgust, the contempt, with which the press of Europe and the United States have noticed, from time to time, though inadequately, and without fully comprehending the subject, the fresh and ever renewed disorders of those numerous revolutions, those apparently civil wars; complications which from one-half century to another have wearied the most indulgent public expectation, and converted into disfavor in many, into hostility in others, the sentiment which induced Mr. Canning and Mr. Monroe to interpose their mediation when it was proposed to suffocate these rising Republics in their cradle!

Yet there has been a law in these revolutions, obscured and even obliterated as it has often been by local passions and invasions of barbarism. From time to time noble men have risen out of those seas of anarchy and misrule who have fed the fire in more timid hearts, and roused up resistance to the moral and physical tyrannies which proved too strong for them in the end; for where such various barbaric influences are at the same time working, and the barbarism of ecclesiastical power is no less demoralizing than that of savage life, the marshalling of all the forces of good, moral, intellectual, and political, guided by the clearest wisdom, and based upon the profoundest culture, are requisite to make even temporary headway. But the martyrs who have fallen in those bootless attempts to evoke order out of chaos, did not die in vain. The time has come when they can be seen far enough in the distance to be comprehended and appreciated, and a man has arisen in that hemisphere at last who can evoke, by the memory of their names and deeds, added to his own inherent power, the aid of the world to his noble cause. Senor Sarmiento proves, by this work which he has just issued, the cosmopolitan spirit with which he can overlook the whole subject, and has found the keystone by which the whole edifice of the nation can be made permanent. In this Introduction, which can not be appreciated by any description, he sketches very powerfully the effect of improvements in education here, and shows how they can be applied there, now the Argentine Republic is consolidated into a nation, in spite of the sad war which just now devastates its borders and devours its resources.

The sketch of the Hon. Horace Mann by Mr. Livingstone is translated entire, closing with some details from the late memoir. Senor Sarmiento made Mr. Mann's acquaintance in 1846, when on an educational mission from the government of Chili, and considers himself much indebted to him for information, for sympathy, for inspiration, and for the determining of his subsequent career in life. But his modesty always makes his own part in the great work he has performed for his own country subordinate to the influence and aid of others. Mr. Mann recognized in him an efficient co-laborer in the great work of the world, and though able to assist him by documents and by experience, he saw that the young stranger needed no outward stimulus of enthusiasm and appreciation of his work. He had already established and carried through a course of normal school instruction in Chili under every disadvantage which the distracted and backward condition of a South American republic could interpose, and came abroad rather to strengthen his cause in the eyes of his countrymen than in his own, which had long been open to the importance and significance of the subject of *education for the whole people.*

His notice of the inauguration of the statue of Mr. Mann, found elsewhere in this volume, is very touching. He has described the scene and rendered into Spanish all the words uttered on that occasion, and thus describes his own subsequent visit to the spot:—

In front of the State House in Boston, on a green declivity ornamented by two enormous vases of bronze, stand the statues of Webster, the celebrated orator, and of Horace Mann, the St. Paul of another, more efficacious, and direct application of evangelical doctrine to the happiness and morality of man, to the greatness of States, to the dignity and elevation of the human race.

It is not every day that one finds himself at the foot of the statue of a man with whom he has had intercourse in life, and whom he could call friend and perhaps co-laborer in the same field, nourished by the same ideas, though reaping different harvests according as those fields had been already tilled or were still uncultivated. That fixedness of the countenance which yet is not death; that expression of mental serenity which the artist impresses upon it; that loss which one does not realize because the perishing materials have been laid aside and the whole invested in the eternity of bronze; those features which we recognize, the lips from which the affectionate greeting is not heard, cause emotions which it is impossible to describe. I was tempted to salute him, to clasp my hands, to smile upon him, to ask him if he remembered the traveler whom he entertained at West Newton in 1846, and to whom he afterward wrote in Chili upon educational subjects.

He adds elsewhere:—

The intrinsic value of the reports of Mr. Mann and of those writings of his which form a true body of doctrine, has led to a proposal to put them to the press to satisfy the demand for them, all the more now that the public is in possession of the results of his labors. If I may be allowed to give any counsel to the South American governments, it would be to purchase as great a number as possible of the volumes of this work, and distribute them in every city and village, that perhaps to-day, perhaps another day, some philanthropic heart, fired by their perusal, may find inspiration, ideas, and methods to do good in that useful, enduring, and transcendent form in which he labored.

The life of Mr. Mann is followed, in the second part of "Las Escuelas," by an account of visits in this country to various educational institutes and public occasions; by many translations of public addresses, of Ex-Governor Washburne, of Governor Andrew, and of the Rev. Erastus Otis Haven, President of the University of Michigan; by some addresses of his own, one of which is a lecture to school-masters which he delivered long since in Chili, and which he

inserts here because of the singular coincidence of its views with those of President Haven, just delivered.

Then comes a short sketch of his visits to different places in the United States, in which he takes occasion to draw pictures of manners and society, and the effects of universally diffused education, for the benefit of his countrymen. We often feel ourselves how inadequate all means in operation yet are for this end; but when we compare the two countries, and think of those societies in which the peasant is already incorporated into the body politic without even changing his native costume into that of civilized nations, (and this is a fitting type of the state of manners thus incorporated,) we can see how it must strike a traveler like himself, to behold the general refinement and elevation of a population which holds the key to all culture by the mere fact that all its members can read and write. Senor Sarmiento describes to us regions abounding in wealth and material prosperity, even cities, where but half a dozen women know how to read! where even in the schools there is not a book, except perhaps some catechism, but where the pupils learn to embroider, to repeat a few words after the teacher, to wear their clothes becomingly, in short, to pass the time under the eye of some duenna who can keep them out of mischief.

Mr. Sarmiento's visits to the meetings of the educational commissions for the instruction of the colored people, and his description of their schools, is very interesting. The Argentine Republic freed their slaves and gave them the franchise when they fought their own war of independence, so that it stands head and shoulders above us in that respect. Now he wishes it to emulate us on the educational point. He describes also the formation of sanitary commissions in imitation of ours for the relief of their soldiers. The Republic was taken unawares and *without a soldier* by the Paraguayan invasion—quite as unprepared as we were for the southern rebellion.

Libraries is another topic treated in "Las Escuelas." With some playfulness, though upon a subject he considers deeply momentous, he says:—

Not many years since, Mr. Horace Mann, after an investigation upon the subject made in the State of Massachusetts, made the disconsolate and alarming discovery that in that State of perhaps a million inhabitants, there were but three hundred and seventy libraries within reach of all its citizens. It is curious to a South American to observe the start of surprise, to hear the cry to heaven on the discovery of such benightment in his country; to read his appeals to his countrymen, conjuring them to put an end to such a calamitous state of things, in such eloquent words as we will give from his reports if we can lay our hands upon them, but which we have often described elsewhere. But three hundred and seventy libraries! What misfortune! It is like the bankers who cry, when negotiations are proposed to them, "It would not leave us a poor million!" It is said of a young French princess, that when she heard the people were clamoring because of their hunger, while Henry IV was besieging his good city of Paris, she exclaimed, "I would eat bread and cheese!" so little did she know of the pains of poverty. Three hundred and seventy libraries would make the glory of South America, with twenty million inhabitants and a world for an abiding place. There are not, I know, in such a vast extent of country and in so many cities, I do not say three hundred, I doubt if there are thirty! I can * * * * * count them on my fingers!

In the year 1854, if I remember aright, there appeared in Chili a book entitled "*Popular Libraries—Modern Discoveries.*" It contained an extract from the first book of Figuier upon the history of gas; of illumination; of the anæsthesia produced by chloroform; of the discovery of the planet Neptune by Leverrier; of the daguerreotype; of the telegraph; all which were then the greatest novelties of the sciences applied to industry and human wants. Perhaps the

President of the Republic read for the first time in that book of difficulties conquered, related as if it were a novel, and of the invention and adoption of those same improvements which he has since labored to introduce into his own country. Such was the book of the epoch, and Figuier continued thus to put the public in possession of useful knowledge, until it has formed a branch of literature. His last illustrated works are "*The World before the Flood*," "*The Sea and the Earth*," the first of which popularized geology, the last, natural phenomena in general.

The government of Chili did not adopt the book which was offered as a model for popular libraries, and the author of the idea paid dear for his attempt.* They however organized libraries and have supported them to this day, but I fear with little adequate selection of books, and little coöperation and interest on the part of the benevolent.

Indeed, the people of South America read very little; where they do read, it is the novels of Dumas and other exciting novelists. Senor Sarmiento calls down anathemas upon the writers of bad novels. But he makes a curious calculation of the advantages of reading even such books as the "Mysteries of Paris."

Let us calculate. Let us imagine a million of the inhabitants of South America reading, at one time, with eagerness and absorption, the execrable "*Mysteries of Paris*," an employment which occupies the leisure hours of say fifteen days. What unimagined horrors are passing through their dilated imaginations! what crimes, what maladies, scarcely diluted by what sublime virtues! what depravity! and yet what benefit! For fifteen days a million of human beings have remained seated, withdrawn from the frictions of real life, from the excitements of passion, from the provocatives to anger! Fifteen millions of mortal sins have been uncommitted, and fifteen times fifteen venial ones. Ten homicides at least have been subtracted from the terrible catalogue of human crime, and I leave the charitable reader to calculate the other delinquencies, failings, and offenses which correspond to a million human beings in fifteen days. One among a thousand I will specify. How many sums of money would have changed hands in gambling, in search of that same excitement which the novel gives?

When Mr. Sarmiento sent home a large edition of his life of Abraham Lincoln, he promised, in his introduction, to furnish it in unlimited quantities, *if they would read it*. He would compass heaven and earth to interest his countrymen, especially his countrywomen, in any useful reading. During his useful life he has labored for this end. He has now, by his influence in the various positions he has occupied, and he has ranged through all, from the humble schoolmaster to chief of the department of schools, senator, governor, all but president, which it is strange his countrymen do not make him, to furnish all the means of education. He has dotted the country with splendid school-houses, magnificently furnished with every appliance, and now these stand with open doors inviting the inspired teachers to enter and commence the great work of regenerating a nation. He has translated text-books, poured them into the country, supplicated, almost commanded the ruling powers to make the cause a national one, THE national one; consecrated buildings as the monumental architecture of the land, and by such appeals as this book, made to the people themselves, has stormed the nation's gates for a hearing.

In the province of San Juan, which took the precedence even of Buenos Ayres in the matter of public education, Senor Sarmiento has built, on the ruins of an ancient temple, the most splendid school edifice in the country, capable of holding 1,700 pupils. While governor of that province, he so enlisted the enthusiasm

* The author of the book was Senor Sarmiento himself.

and coöperation of his fellow-citizens, that the requisite funds were furnished, partly from purses able to disburse it, but chiefly by the work of his country-women sold at fairs, the contributions in kind of farmers, &c. A letter from his successor, Governor Rajo, giving a charming account of the three days' fiesta on the occasion of the dedication of the building, which took place after Senor Sarmiento left the country, is given in full in "*Las Escuelas*," and must have cheered the great heart that had nursed the hope of founding such an institution on that spot *ever since he was fifteen years old*, a clerk in a little store on the opposite corner. Since that time he had resided in various lands, been an exile from his own country, driven out of another by persecution because of his efforts to elevate the people, (who had always appreciated him,) never residing more than five years in one spot; he had passed through almost all the important posts a man can fill in society, had contributed not only to the educational advancement of his various places of residence, but been the most efficient man in legislation, the most long-suffering and sturdy resister of monopolies and oppressions, never flattering those in power, but like the Polish noble in the diet, with his hand on the door-lock had shouted his veto and then escaped to be ready for the next occasion with his gentle or his shouted protest, according as the case might require; he had laid the corner-stone of many identical interests in many different spheres of action; he had written more than a hundred volumes upon the most important subjects, founded a dozen newspapers and periodicals, and been their chief contributor also. He now has the satisfaction of seeing his own province, an oasis of luxuriance and beauty in the midst of a desert at the foot of the Andes, taking the foremost step in the *education of the whole people*. His principle has always been that the primary education is the most important.

A detailed sketch of his life and labors will soon be furnished for this Journal, to take its place among the biographies of American educational men.

"Las Escuelas" closes with a description of various educational societies formed in the province of San Juan under his auspices, with a discourse he pronounced before the Historical Society of Rhode Island, and a correspondence with his government regarding a subscription for the Hon. Horace Mann's works, and Dr. Gould's plan of erecting an observatory at Cordova, for the purpose of adding the catalogue of Southern stars to those already observed. The volume is probably destined to produce an educational revolution in South America.

X. COLLEGE EDUCATION.

COMMUNICATION TO THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE VISITORS AND GOVERNORS ON THE RE-ORGANIZATION OF ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.

Submitted June 28th, 1866.

AFTER a careful study of the past condition and present resources of the college, and with such knowledge as I have been able to obtain concerning the educational wants of Maryland with a view of placing St. John's College in a position to meet those wants, and to contribute with similar institutions within and without the state to the liberal and higher education of American youth, I submit the following PLAN OF RE-ORGANIZATION AND IMPROVEMENT.

I. GROUNDS, BUILDINGS, AND EQUIPMENT.

1. The spacious and beautiful grounds belonging to the college should be not only properly protected, but made still more attractive, and directly serviceable for their appropriate uses—the health and physical enjoyment, as well as the moral and æsthetic purposes of all connected with the institution—by being at once securely enclosed with a fence and hedge of osage orange, or a belt of trees and shrubbery; and the entire area thus enclosed should be artistically treated in reference to preservation, ornamentation, and use.

The wear and tear caused by years of unregulated surface-drainage should be at once stopped by properly constructed rain-channels, and the unsightly ravines be converted into beautiful turf-slopes, or screened by blossoming shrubs. The gentle elevations which overlook the creek and river, and the undulating water-margin, should be planted —in groups or singly—with every variety of Maryland trees, and traversed with winding walks. Underdrained and level spaces should be left for quoits, ball-playing, and other athletic sports, while thick, soft green-sward, on which the eye loves to repose, should be cultivated as rapidly as possible. I do not recommend any large appropriation at once for these purposes, and the expenditure for this year need not go beyond the enclosure of the grounds, and a well-devised plan for future improvements by a landscape gardener. A well executed plot for the improvement of the grounds would greatly help the desire, and secure the means for its execution.

In connection with the improvement of the grounds, reference should be had to the erection of a suitable structure for gymnastic and sheltered exercises in wet and inclement weather, and for a boat and bath-house in one of the indentures of the creek.

2. The spacious college buildings require for their protection and use not only the repairs which are now going on, but very extensive improvements to make the large expenditure which has already been incurred in their construction truly accomplish the purposes intended.

All the rooms designed for the occupancy of the students should be plainly and substantially furnished, and all class and lecture-rooms should be not only appropriately equipped, but systematically warmed and ventilated, and health, neatness, comfort and economy will be consulted by extending the same system to the dormitories of the students and the residences of the professors. For the use of these improvements and for all special damage hereafter by individuals, or by classes, a suitable charge can be made in the term-bills. One of the large buildings, designed to accommodate such students as from age require domestic supervision, should be properly equipped for household purposes. In the same building, arrangements can be made for a refectory or restaurant, at which such students as choose may, singly or in clubs, obtain wholesome meals at prices varying with the quality, but in all cases as near the actual cost as possible.

3. The laboratories for Chemistry, Metallurgy, and Physics—if these important departments of science are to be taught properly, especially in respect to their applications to the arts—need not so much renovation as re-construction and equipment on a larger scale. The appropriation for these purposes need not be large at any one time, but they should be made from year to year as the progress of the classes require, on a well-considered plan, after an examination of the most recently constructed and well furnished laboratories in our best colleges and scientific schools.

4. The library contains many books highly valuable to a special class of readers, but it is greatly deficient in dictionaries, encyclopædias, manuals of reference, and standard treatises in classical philology, and recent discoveries in physical science and the industrial arts. Professors worthy of their positions, before they accept the same, must be assured that the library will be furnished with such publications as will keep them up with the literature of their several departments. Should the course of instruction be extended as hereinafter proposed, in aid of the more liberal culture of young men destined for commercial pursuits, so as to embrace for each student a thorough study of

the English and one or more of the principal modern languages—German, French, Spanish, or Italian—a study as thorough and comprehensive as is now provided in the best American colleges for the language, literature and history of either ancient Greece or Rome, it will be necessary to make a judicious selection of standard works in the German, French, Spanish, and Italian languages, as well as in our own, so as to make these languages not only subjects of philological study, but the means of obtaining information respecting the history, the science, the arts, the literature, the agriculture, and all the industrial resources of their countries. Under all circumstances, a well selected consultation library is an indispensable help in the work of college instruction, and to know what to read and how to read is not only the best evidence, but the surest path of a truly liberal education.

In immmediate connection with the library, and especially with the dictionaries, encyclopædias, and books of reference generally, I recommend the establishment of a reading-room, which shall be accessible under prescribed rules at certain hours, every day, to the students. To know how to use books for settling doubts, and gratifying an awakened desire to know, as well as for pursuing investigations beyond the elementary text-books, will be, I trust, a special object of inculcation by each professor, and will certainly receive special treatment from the Professor of Education.

II. SCHEME OF INSTRUCTION.

The scheme of instruction provided for a state institution, whose object is so high and comprehensive as is set forth in the preamble of the Charter of St. John's College, viz.: "The liberal education of youth in the principles of virtue, science, and useful literature, in order to train up a succession of able and honest men for discharging the various offices and duties of life, both civil and religious, with usefulness and reputation," should embrace such an extension of the studies and discipline begun in the elementary school, public or private, as to qualify the youth who may resort here for a liberal education, to share and direct the agricultural, mercantile, manufacturing, mechanical, mining, commercial and educational operations of the state, as well as those which are ordinarily designated as professional. Subjects, not heretofore recognized as independent or associated branches of academical instruction, but the acquisition of which, rightly made, is at once disciplinary and useful, must be introduced and thoroughly taught by competent professors, if the young men who inherit the landed property and succeed to the management of large business transactions on their own account, or as agents and officers of great business cor-

porations, are to be qualified here by mental discipline, useful knowledge, and the power of future self-instruction, "to discharge their various duties and offices with usefulness and reputation." My own conviction is, that the Public High School, and the next higher grade of school, known as the College, should give a liberal as well as practical education (in its aims, subjects, and processes,) to a much larger number of the business-men of the community than they have yet succeeded in doing.

I. Principles of Education and Religion, with their Applications to Methods of Study, Formation of Character, and the Conduct of Life.

This department, to which will be assigned for the present, Ethics, Metaphysics, and Logic, will include—

1. Informal and occasional suggestions to individuals and to classes on the subject of personal habits, and the laws and methods of study.

2. Formal instruction in the history, principles and methods of education; the classification, instruction, and discipline of schools of different grades; and the organization and administration of systems of public education—designed not only for those members of the college who propose to make teaching their business, but as indispensable in this country, where men of liberal culture are constantly called on to advise or act in the establishment and management of institutions of learning, and the education of children.

3. Instruction in the evidences and principles of natural and revealed religion.

4. Helps to the formation of moral and religious character and habits in harmony with the expressed wishes of parents and guardians.

5. Instruction by text-books, essays, discussions, and lectures on Intellectual and Moral Philosophy and Logic.

II. Physical Culture.

In addition to formal instruction by text-books and lectures on Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene, including under the latter full exposition of the laws and conditions of public as well as of individual wellbeing, special and systematic attention will be given to the physical training and personal habits of students. The professor of this department will give regular instruction in a system of gymnastics adapted to the age and strength of each individual, even if the whole body of students shall be put into military organization and subjected to regular military drill and movements. But aside from this systematic treatment for the promotion of physical culture, the Professor of Education will be required to give to all the students, and especially to all new comers, familiar practical lectures on the

laws of health and study—on Air, Sleep, Exercise, Diet and Recreation. Every possible encouragement should be given not only to free out-door sports, but every possible precaution taken against the formation of unhealthy and slovenly habits. The office of this professorship is deemed of primary importance to the success of every other department of the institution, and the various improvements recommended under the head of Buildings and Grounds—the proper ventilation and warming of dormitories, class and lecture-rooms, as well as provision for bathing, swimming, boating, and ball-playing, and for varied indoor and out-door exercises and recreations appropriate to different ages, and to different conditions of the weather, and to different seasons of the year—all have a direct bearing on this department.

III. English Language.

This department will embrace a thorough study of the history and philological principles of our Language, and a critical examination of its Literature as embodied in the writings of Chaucer, Shakspeare, Bunyan, Milton, Burke, and other standard authors, and will include Vocal Culture, Composition, and Rhetoric. The study of the English Language should be made obligatory on every student—should be commenced early and continued through his entire connection with the college.

IV. Mathematics, Physics, and Astronomy.

This department should as early as practicable be distributed into at least three professorships, and include the practical application of these sciences to Commercial Computation, Mensuration, Surveying, Leveling, Engineering, Navigation, Architecture and Building, Machinery and Motors.

V. Chemistry and Chemical Technology.

Instruction will be given by text-books, lectures, and laboratory practice, and the students will be required to explain the processes and results of their own manipulations.

VI. Natural Science.

Beginning with a single resident professor and with the youngest students as to the cultivation of their observing faculties, as well as an understanding of familiar phenomena, and for giving variety to the study of numbers and language, this department, including Botany, Mineralogy, Geology, and Zoology, can be extended so as to give to such students as have the taste and the leisure, by special lectures, opportunities for the mastery of one or more of these sciences, with their applications in Agriculture, Mining, and the Arts, and to all, the latest generalizations in each.

VII. Geography, History, and National Industries.

This department, or at least the form and extent of the instruction contemplated in its establishment, may be regarded by some as an innovation on the college curriculum, but the results of a few years experience will, I am sure, vindicate its place in any system of liberal education.

VIII. Law and Public Economy.

Besides the strictly professional course, which the Law School, provided for by the Legislature, in connection with this college, when properly established, will give, it is recommended that a course of lectures on the Constitution of the United States and the state of Maryland, and on the Law of the Citizen and the Man of Business, as well as the principles of Public Economy, be given, which shall be open to all the students, and on which all candidates for the degree of Bachelor or Master of Literature, Science, and the Arts, shall be examined.

IX. Graphics.

This department will include Drawing, (Free Hand and Mechanical,) Penmanship, Book-keeping, Commercial Forms and Correspondence, Topographical and Architectural Projections, &c.

X. Fine Arts.

In this department I propose that provision shall be made for instruction in Music and Vocal Culture, in Modeling and Sketching from Nature and Art, and in the history and principles of Sculpture, Painting, Architecture, and Landscape Gardening.

[The foregoing departments or subjects of instruction will be open for all students who connect themselves by matriculation for at least one year's connection with the college or any of its associated schools, and purpose to be examined for certificates of proficiency in any two of the specified subjects, whether they are candidates for the usual academic degrees or not. To those who propose to study for the highest honors of the college, and aspire to the discipline and attainments and the usual evidence of a liberal education—although I regard every one of the above subjects rightly studied as important parts of such an education—it is recommended that provision be made for the most thorough study of—]

XI. Language.

This department, in addition to thorough instruction in the English Language and its Literature, and in the History and Civilization of the people who speak it, should embrace—

1. The Ancient Languages—particularly those of Greece and Rome—with a knowledge of the history, literature, and peculiar civilization of each—in a course as comprehensive and critical as in our best American colleges.

2. The Modern European Languages—particularly of Germany, France, Spain, and Italy—languages which are now acting powerfully on the science, arts, and civilization generally of the age, or are spoken by peoples with whom we have large commercial, or delicate political relations.

Without attempting to discuss the relative disciplinary value of an equally thorough training in any one of the modern languages named above, as compared with a similar training in the Latin or Greek language, I must, when called on to indicate a scheme of instruction best adapted to the largest, and not the smallest number of young men who are likely to resort to this college for their education, express my deep conviction of the desirableness of providing for a large and thorough course of instruction in the modern languages, to be begun early and continued for at least four years, and that proficiency in any one shall count as high in the distribution of college honors and the academic degrees as a similar proficiency in either Latin or Greek.

III. PROFESSORS AND TUTORS.

While uncertain as to the number of students who may connect themselves with a college which has been suspended for several years, and while so many Maryland families send their sons out of the state for a college education, I am not prepared to recommend the immediate appointment of a full corps of resident professors, sufficient to carry into operation the foregoing Scheme of Instruction. Without being desirous, I am ready to assume at once the responsibility of inaugurating such a system, differing in some of its subjects and details from an American college, provided I am authorized to employ at least five professors and such class-instructors and lecturers, more or less, as the exigencies of the institution may require—on such terms, and for such work, and for such periods of the year, as I may find advisable, within such limitation concerning salaries and subjects as the Board may prescribe.

To the Principal and Faculty thus constituted, I respectfully ask that the internal administration of the college be committed, subject to such general statutes as the Board may ordain.

I close this communication with a few suggestions for the present organization and further improvement of the college.

IV. SUGGESTIONS.

Admission.—As a Preparatory Department—from the old King William School which seems to have constituted the real germ of St. John's College—has always formed a part of the college organization, and as my conception of a college is an extension and perfection of the discipline and attainments of the academy or the high school, which now forms an important feature of the public school system of Maryland, I recommend that for the special convenience of this section of the state, and as a preparatory basis for our higher classification and instruction, that we provide in our several departments for that class of pupils who would, from their age and attainments, (as may be established by the State Board of Education,) constitute a Public High School.

Terms and Vacations for 1866–67.—The extensive repairs and improvements begun and contemplated in this Report are in such state of forwardness or of such character as to authorize the opening of the college in September, and the convenience of students and professors will be consulted by dividing the first year into three terms, as follows: (1) from the third Wednesday in September to the second day before Christmas—14 weeks, followed by a vacation of ten days till the third of January; (2) from the third day of January to the second Wednesday in April—14 weeks, followed by a vacation of one week; (3) from the third Wednesday of April to the last Friday in June—12 weeks, followed by a vacation to the second Wednesday in September.

Expenses and Payments.—The college bills should be made out three times a year, and should embrace the following items for each term:

Tuition,	$25
Room rent,	10
Use of Furniture,	5
Fuel and Lights,	10
Recitation Rooms, (Fuel, Lights, Janitor,) and Incidentals,	10
Gymnasium,	3
Library and Reading Room,	3

The amount of the first term-bill must be paid by each student on his admission, and each subsequent term-bill must be paid in advance, unless a bond with satisfactory surety for the payment of all college bills is given to the treasurer. A liberal discount (25 per cent) should be made if the three term-bills for the year are paid in advance.

Each student occupying a room in college will be entitled to the use of plain and substantial furniture, viz.: table, two chairs, bedstead, wash-stand, clothes-press, and will provide himself with bed, bedding, and towels.

Damages.—The occupant of each room and the members of each class will be assessed with the damages which may be done the same.

Board.—For the present, at least, arrangements should be made for boarding in the college family such students as parents or guardians may desire to place there, and at the same time facilities should be given for obtaining board in clubs by those students who choose to associate for this purpose.

State Scholarships.—The Scholarships conditioned on the annual appropriation of $3,000 by the state, should be assigned to the different counties on some equitable principle, and should be first tenable by graduates from the recognized county high schools, where such exist, as an encouragement to that grade of institutions.

Four Years' Scholarships.—To meet, in part, the expense of inaugurating at once a system of college education equal to the requirements of the age, an immediate effort should be made to establish, at least, one hundred scholarships, which should each entitle the holder to tuition in any regular class, subject, or school, for four years from its foundation.

Permanent Endowment.—The enlarged appropriation for five years by the Legislature towards the expense of re-organizing St. John's College with a larger Faculty to supply a more extensive course of instruction for the youth of the state, should stimulate the friends of the institution to vigorous exertions for placing its principal professorships on permanent and sufficient endowment, and to establish Scholarships, Prizes, and Loans, for rewarding merit, encouraging talent and industry, and to assist worthy and enterprising young men in their pursuit of knowledge under the disadvantages of friendlessness and poverty. I would therefore propose for the consideration of the Visitors (1) whether any vacancy which exists or may occur in the Board might not be filled on the nomination of subscribers to an amount sufficient to endow a professorship; (2) whether generous individuals, zealous for the promotion of a particular department of knowledge, might not be induced to establish Scholarships or Prizes, giving to them their own or other names, and specifying the conditions of their gift; (3) whether the Alumni might not wish to establish similar Scholarships and Prizes bearing their name; (4) whether the friends of some of the county academies and high schools would not unite in

founding Scholarships for the most worthy students entering college from these academies and high schools; (5) whether churches of different denominations, by contributions of a thousand dollars each, might not wish to provide, at least, to the extent of the income from this sum for the tuition of the sons of their ministers, or in lieu of that, for some other meritorious youth; (6) whether a General Loan Fund might not be established, the income of which, in sums not exceeding sixty dollars to the same person in one year toward the expense of tuition or board, may be loaned to such meritorious students as need and desire assistance in this way.

Society of Alumni.—As very much of the strength of a college resides in the number of its Alumni, and in their interest in its prosperity, I would respectfully commend to your consideration whether that interest can not be increased, not only by holding the public examinations and exercises of St. John's College at such periods of the year as will facilitate their attendance and participation, but by tendering to the Society of the Alumni the nomination to such vacancies in the Board of Visitors as may occur, according to the provision of the charter, "by the absence of any member for four succeeding quarterly meetings."

State Teachers' Association, and the Educational Movements of the State.—Holding it to be the duty and the privilege of every educated man, and especially of all institutions charged with any portion of the higher instruction of youth, to co-operate in the general educational movements of the state, I propose, with the approbation of the Board, to invite the State Teachers' Association to hold their annual meetings at Annapolis, at such periods of the year as will enable them to occupy our halls and class-rooms for their public exercises, and to accept the hospitalities of the College during the session. I propose also, to open to the Public School teachers of the state any of our courses of instruction connected with their own teaching, free of tuition, and to arrange the time for the Lectures on the History, Principles, and Methods of Education, so as to facilitate their attendance.

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY BARNARD,
Principal of St. John's College.

ANNAPOLIS, Md., June 28th, 1866.

AN ACT FOR FOUNDING A COLLEGE, ON THE WESTERN SHORE.

Passed, November, 1784

I. WHEREAS institutions for the liberal education of youth in the principles of virtue, knowledge, and useful literature, are of the highest benefit to society, in order to train up and perpetuate a succession of able and honest men for discharging the various offices and duties of life, both civil and religious, with usefulness and reputation, and such institutions of learning have accordingly been promoted and encouraged by the wisest and best regulated States: and whereas it appears to this general assembly, that many public spirited individuals, from an earnest desire to promote the founding a college, or seminary of learning, on the western shore of this state, have subscribed and procured subscriptions to a considerable amount, and there is reason to believe that very large additions will be obtained to the same throughout the different counties of the said shore, if they were made capable in law to receive and apply the same towards founding and carrying on a college, or general seminary of learning, with such salutary plan, and with such legislative assistance and direction, as the general assembly might think fit; and this general assembly, highly approving those generous exertions of individuals, are desirous to embrace the present favorable occasion of peace and prosperity for making lasting provision for the encouragement and advancement of all useful knowledge and literature through every part of this State:

II. Be it enacted, by the General Assembly of Maryland, that a college or general seminary of learning, by the name of Saint John's, be established on the said western shore, upon the following fundamental and inviolable principles, namely; first, the said college shall be founded and maintained for ever, upon a most liberal plan, for the benefit of youth of every religious denomination, who shall be freely admitted to equal privileges and advantages of education, and to all the literary honors of the college, according to their merit, without requiring or enforcing any civil or religious test, or urging their attendance upon any particular religious worship or service, other than what they have been educated in, or have the consent and approbation of their parents or guardians to attend; nor shall any preference be given in the choice of a principal, vice-principal, or other professor, master or tutor, in the said college, on account of his particular religious profession, having regard solely to his moral character and literary abilities, and other necessary qualifications to fill the place for which he shall be chosen. Secondly, there shall be a subscription carried on in the different counties of the western shore, upon the plan on which it hath been opened, for founding the said college; and the several subscribers shall class themselves, according to their respective inclinations, and for every thousand pounds current money which may be subscribed and paid, or secured to be paid, into the hands of the treasurer of the western shore, by any particular class of subscribers, they shall be entitled to the choice of one person as a visitor and governor of said college. Thirdly, when any of the first visitors and governors chosen by the subscribers as aforesaid shall die, or remove out of the state, or absent himself from four succeeding quarterly meetings, without such excuse or plea of necessary absence as shall be deemed reasonable by a legal and just quorum of the said visitors and governors, duly assembled at a quarterly visitation of the said college, such quorum, so assembled, shall proceed, by a new election, to fill up the place and seat of such deceased, removed, or absenting member.

III. And be it further enacted, that the Reverend Mr. John Carroll, and the Reverend William Smith and Patrick Allison, doctors in divinity, Richard Sprigg, John Sterett and George Digges, Esquires, and such other persons as they, or any two of them, may appoint in the different counties of this shore, be agents for soliciting and receiving, and they are hereby authorized to solicit and receive subscriptions and contributions for the said intended college and seminary of universal learning, of any person or persons, bodies politic and corporate, who may be willing to promote so good a design; and when any class or classes of subscribers shall have subscribed and paid, or secured to be paid as aforesaid, to the treasurer of the western shore, in three equal yearly payments, to commence from the first day of June, seventeen hundred and eighty-five, the

sum of one thousand pounds current money, and shall have lodged their original subscription papers in the hands of any one of the agents aforesaid, such agent shall take a copy of the same, and shall deposite the original subscription lists with the said treasurer, taking his receipt for the same; and such agent shall then appoint a time and place, convenient for the said class of subscribers, to meet and choose one person as a visitor and governor of the college, agreeably to the foregoing fundamental articles, and shall cause six weeks notice of the time and place of such election to be given in the Annapolis and Baltimore newspapers, and shall attend at the time and place of such election, with a complete list of the subscribers, and all persons having subscribed or contributed nine pounds or upwards, shall be entitled to vote for one person as a visitor and governor, according as he may be classed. but shall not be entitled to vote for another visitor and governor among any other class or denomination of subscribers, unless he shall have made a second subscription of nine pounds or upwards in the said class, by and with their approbation; and all persons who may be chosen visitors and governors as aforesaid, shall be considered as agents, together with the agents above mentioned, and shall have authority to act in conjunction with them, or any of them, in carrying the design into execution, as fully as if they had been herein and hereby nominated and appointed original agents for that purpose.

IV. And be it enacted, that when thirteen visitors and governors shall be chosen as aforesaid, the said agents, or any three or more of them, shall cause six weeks notice to be given in the newspapers aforesaid, appointing a time and place for the said visitors and governors to meet and take upon them the discharge of their trust; and the said thirteen visitors and governors, and such persons as may be afterwards added to their number by any new elections made as aforesaid, by subscribers of one thousand pounds current money, within three years after the first day of June, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-five, and their successors, duly chosen according to the tenor hereof, shall be, and are hereby declared to be, one community, corporation, and body politic, to have continuance for ever, by the name of "The Visitors and Governors of Saint John's College, in the state of Maryland;" and by the same name they shall have perpetual succession. Provided nevertheless, that the whole number of visitors and governors of the said college shall never at any time be more than twenty-four, nor less than thirteen, seven of whom shall always have their usual residence within sixteen miles of the said college; and provided further, that if in three years from the first day of June, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-five, there shall not be twenty-four visitors and governors chosen as aforesaid by classes of subscribers of one thousand pounds current money each class, the other visitors and governors, being not less than eleven, duly assembled at any quarterly visitation, to be held according to the tenor of this act, shall proceed by election to fill up the number of twenty-four visitors and governors, as they shall think most expedient and convenient. Provided always, that seventeen of the said visitors and governors shall be resident on the western shore of this state, but that the additional visitors and governors (to make up and perpetuate the number of twenty-four) may be chosen from any part of this state, if they are such persons as can reasonably undertake to attend the quarterly visitations, and are thought capable, by their particular learning, weight and character, to advance the interest and reputation of the said seminary.

V. And be it enacted, that the said thirteen or more visitors and governors shall have full power and authority to call for and receive, out of the hands of the treasurer of the western shore, all such subscription papers and moneys as may have been deposited with him, or may in anywise have come into his hands and keeping, for the founding and carrying on the said college, and to appoint their own treasurer, who shall give sufficient security for the faithful discharge of his trust, and shall thereafter have the care and custody of all subscription papers, and sum or sums of money that may be collected thereon, and the receiving and keeping of all outstanding subscriptions, and other moneys that may be put into his hands for the use of the said college, subject to the order of the visitors and governors of the same.

VI. And be it enacted, that the said thirteen or more visitors and governors, shall, at their first meeting after the first day of June next, and before the first day

of August, if so many visitors and governors should then be chosen according to the tenor of this act, fix and determine upon some proper place or situation on the said western shore for erecting the said college, which determination shall be by a majority of the whole number of visitors and governors so met, such number being in the whole not less than thirteen; and if such majority shall not, within the time aforesaid, agree upon any one place or situation for the said college, it shall be left for the general assembly of this state, at their first ensuing session, to determine upon the place for building the said college, upon the application of any three or more of the said visitors and governors, setting forth that they could not agree upon the premises; and a complete list of the subscriptions for founding the said college shall at the same time be laid before the general assembly. But if, on or before the first day of June, seventeen hundred and eighty-five, there should not be a sufficient number of subscribers for electing and completing the whole of the said thirteen visitors and governors as aforesaid, the number of visitors and governors that shall be chosen on or before the said first day of June, if they are seven or more, may fix and determine upon the place for erecting the said college, provided seven of them shall agree upon any one place; and if they can not so agree, they may either leave the same to the determination of the general assembly as aforesaid, or they may call to their advice the six agents above named; and any four of the said agents that can attend, with the seven or more visitors and governors so chosen, may either together, by seven on the whole agreeing, fix and determine upon the place for building the said college, as they shall judge most convenient and satisfactory to the majority of subscribers, and best calculated to secure the success of the design, or if they can not so agree, the determination of the place shall be still left to the general assembly, at their first session ensuing the said first day of June next; in the mean time, the said agents, and the visitors and governors so chosen, shall use all diligence to increase the number of subscriptions.

VII. And be it enacted, that if the city of Annapolis should be fixed upon as a proper place for establishing the said intended college, this general assembly give and grant, and upon that condition do hereby give and grant to the visitors and governors of the said college, by the name of The Visitors and Governors of Saint John's College, in the state of Maryland, and their successors, all that four acres within the city of Annapolis purchased for the use of the public, and conveyed on the second day of October, seventeen hundred and forty-four, by Stephen Bordley, Esquire, to Thomas Bladen, Esquire, then governor, to have and to hold the said four acres of land, with the appertenancies, to the said visitors and governors, and their successors, for the only use, benefit and behoof, of the said college and seminary of universal learning for ever.

VIII. And be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors, by the same name, shall be able and capable in law to purchase, have and enjoy, to them and their successors, in fee, or for any other less estate or estates, and any lands, tenements, rents, annuities, pensions, or other hereditaments, within this state, by the gift, grant, bargain, sale, alienation, enfeofment, release, confirmation or devise, of any person or persons, bodies politic or corporate, capable to make the same; and such lands, tenements, rents, annuities, pensions, or other hereditaments, or any less estates, rights or interests, of or in the same, (excepting the said public lands hereby granted,) at their pleasure or grant, alien, sell and transfer, in such manner and form as they shall think meet and convenient for the furtherance of the said college; and also that they may take and receive any sum or sums of money, and any kind, manner or portion, of goods and chattels that shall be given, sold or bequeathed, to them, by any person or persons, bodies politic or corporate, capable to make a gift, sale or bequest thereof, and employ the same towards erecting, setting up and maintaining, the said college, in such manner as they shall judge most necessary and convenient for the instruction, improvement and education, of youth, in the vernacular and learned languages, and generally in any kind of literature, arts and sciences, which they shall think proper to be taught for training up good, useful and accomplished men, for the service of their country in church and state.

IX. And be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors,

by the name aforesaid, shall be able in law to sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, in any court or courts, before any judge, judges or justices, within the state and elsewhere, in all and all manner of suits, complaints, pleas, causes, matters and demands, of whatsoever kind, nature or form they be, and all and every other matter and thing therein to do, in as full and effectual a manner as any other person or persons, bodies politic or corporate, within this state, or any of the United States of America, in like cases may or can do.

X. And be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors, shall have full power and authority to have, make and use, one common and public seal, and likewise one privy seal, with such devices and inscriptions as they shall think proper, and to ascertain, fix and regulate, the uses of both seals, by their own laws, and the same seals, or either of them, to change, break, alter and renew, at their pleasure

XI. And be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors, from time to time, and at all times hereafter for ever, shall have full power and authority to constitute and appoint, in such manner as they shall think best and most convenient, a principal and vice-principal of the said college, and professors, with proper tutors and assistants, for instructing the students and scholars of the said seminary in all the liberal arts and sciences, and in the ancient and modern tongues and languages, who shall be severally styled Professors of such arts, sciences, languages or tongues, as they shall be nominated and appointed for, according to each particular nomination and appointment; and the said principal, vice-principal and professors, so constituted and appointed, from time to time, shall be known and distinguished for ever as one learned body or faculty, by the name of The Principal, Vice-principal and Professors, of Saint John's College, in the State of Maryland; and by that name shall be capable of exercising such powers and authorities as the visitors and governors of the said college, and their successors, shall, by their ordinances, think necessary to delegate to them, for the instruction, discipline and government, of the said seminary, and of all the students, scholars, ministers and servants, belonging to the same; and the said principal and vice-principal, professors, students, scholars, and such necessary ministers and servants as give constant attendance upon the business of the college, shall be exempted from all rates and taxes on their salaries, and from all military duties, except in the case of an actual invasion of the State, and when general military law is declared.

XII. And be it enacted, that the clear yearly value of the messuages, houses, lands, tenements, rents, annuities, or other hereditaments and real estate of said college and corporation, shall not exceed nine thousand pounds current money, to be reckoned in Spanish milled dollars, at the present weight and rate: and all gifts, grants and bequests, to the said college and corporation, after the yearly value of their estates shall amount to nine thousand pounds as aforesaid, and all bargains and purchases to be made by the said corporation, which may increase the yearly value of said estate above or beyond the sum aforesaid, shall be absolutely void and of none effect.

XIII. And be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors, shall meet at least four times in every year, in stated quarterly meetings, to be appointed by their own ordinances, and at such other times as by their said ordinances they may direct, in order to examine the progress of the students and scholars in literature, to hear and determine on all complaints and appeals and upon all matters touching the discipline of the seminary, and the good and wholesome execution of their ordinances; in all which examinations, meetings and determinations, such number of the said visitors and governors duly met, (provided they be not less than seven,) shall be a quorum, as the fundamental ordinances at first, or any time afterwards, duly enacted by a majority of the whole visitors, shall fix and determine.

XIV. And be it enacted, that a majority of the said visitors and governors for the time being, when duly assembled at any quarterly or other meeting, upon due notice given to the whole body of visitors and governors, shall have full power and authority to make fundamental ordinances for the government of the said college, and the instruction of youth, as aforesaid, and by these ordinances to appoint such a number of their own body, not less than seven, as they may think proper, to be a quorum for transacting all general and necessary business

of the said seminary, and making temporary rules for the government of the same; and also by the said fundamental ordinances to delegate to the principal, vice-principal and professors, for such powers and authorities as they may think best for the standing government of the said seminary, and of the execution of the ordinances and rules of the same; provided always, that they be not repugnant to the form of government, or any law of this state.

XV. And, for animating and encouraging the students of the said college to a laudable diligence, industry, and progress in useful literature and science, be it enacted, that the said visitors and governors, and their successors, shall, by a written mandate under their privy seal, and the hand of some one of the visitors and governors to be chosen annually as their president, according to the ordinance to be made for that purpose, have full power and authority to direct the principal, vice-principal and professors, to hold public commencements, either on stated annual days, or occasionally, as the future ordinances of the said seminary may direct, and at such commencements to admit any of the students in the said college, or any other persons meriting the same, (whose names shall be severally inserted in the same mandate) to any degree or degrees in any of the faculties, arts and sciences, and liberal professions, to which persons are usually admitted in other colleges or universities in America or Europe; and it is hereby enacted, that the principal, or in case of his death or absence the vice-principal, and in case of the death or absence of both the senior professor who may be present, shall make out and sign with his name, diplomas, or certificates of the admission to such degree or degrees, which shall be sealed with the public or greater seal of the said corporation or college, and deliver to the graduates, as honorable and perpetual testimonials of such admission; which diplomas, if thought necessary for doing greater honor to such graduates, shall also be signed with the names of the different professors, or as many of them as can conveniently sign the same; provided always, that no student or students within the said college, shall ever be admitted to any such degree or degrees, or have their name inserted in any mandate for a degree, until such student or students have been first duly examined and thought worthy of the same, at a public examination of candidates, to be held one whole month previous to the day of commencement in the said college, by and in the presence of the said visitors and governors, or of such quorum of them, not less than seven, as the ordinances of the college may authorize for that purpose, and in the presence of any other persons choosing to attend the same; and provided further, that no person or persons, excepting the students belonging to the said seminary, shall ever be admitted to any honorary or other degree or degrees in the same, unless thirteen of the visitors and governors (of whom the president shall be one,) by a mandate under their privy seal, and signed by the hands of the whole thirteen, to the principal, vice-principal and professors, directed, have signified their approbation and authority for the particular admission of such person to said degree or degrees.

XVI. And be it enacted, that the ordinances which shall be from time to time made by the visitors and governors of the said college, and their successors, with an account of their other proceedings, and of the management of the estate and moneys committed to their trust, shall, when required, be laid before the general assembly, for their inspection and examination; but in case at any time hereafter, through oversight, or otherwise through misapprehensions and mistaken constructions of the powers, liberties and franchises, in this charter or act of incorporation granted or intended to be granted, any ordinance should be made by the said corporation of visitors and governors, or any matters done and transacted by the corporation, contrary to the tenor thereof, it is enacted, that although all such ordinances, acts and doings, shall in themselves be null and void, yet they shall not, however, in any courts of law, or by the general assembly, be deemed, taken, interpreted or adjudged, into an avoidance or forfeiture of this charter and act of incorporation, but the same shall be and remain unhurt, inviolate and entire, unto the said corporation of visitors and governors, in perpetual succession; and all their acts conformable to the powers, true intent and meaning hereof, shall be and remain in full force and validity, the nullity and avoidance of such illegal acts to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.

XVII. And be it enacted, that this charter and act of incorporation, and every part thereof, shall be good and available in all things in the law, according to the true intent and meaning thereof, and shall be construed, reputed and adjudged, in all cases, most favorably on the behalf, and for the best benefit and behoof of, the said visitors and governors, and their successors, so as most effectually to answer the valuable ends of this act of incorporation, towards the general advancement and promotion of useful knowledge, science and virtue.

XVIII. And be it enacted, that no person shall act as visitor and governor, or as principal or vice-principal, or as professor, in the said college, before he shall take the oath of fidelity and support to this state required by the constitution or by the laws of this state.

XIX. And, to provide a permanent fund for the further encouragement and establishment of the said college on the western shore, be it enacted, that the sum of one thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds current money, be annually and for ever hereafter given and granted as a donation by the public to the use of the said college on the western shore, to be applied by the visitors and governors of the said college to the payment of salaries to the principal, professors and tutors, of the said college.

[Sections XX.—XXII. are devoted to the imposition of certain specified taxes on marriage licenses, fines, penalties, or forfeitures for any offense at common law, licenses for selling goods at retail from place to place, for retailing liquors, &c., &c., to be collected and set apart in the hands of the State Treasurer, subject to the orders of the Visitors of said College. These sections were repealed in 1805.

Sections XXXIII.—XXXV. provide for constituting the College, founded on the Eastern shore, by the name of Washington College, (in honorable and perpetual memory of the late illustrious and virtuous commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States,) and St. John's College, one university, by the name of the University of Maryland, of which the Governor of the State shall be Chancellor, and the principal of one of said Colleges shall be vice-chancellor, by succession or election; the Visitors and Governors of both, or a representation of at least seven of each, shall be styled the Convocation, with power to confer higher degrees, and to secure uniformity of manners and literature in said colleges, &c. These and other provisions were never carried into effect, and the sections were repealed in 1805.]

* The special taxes imposed by this act for the payment of the sum annually appropriated in aid of the expenses of the Colleges were unpopular from the start, and were attacked in a pamphlet signed "A Planter," immediately after the adjournment of the Assembly in May, 1785. H. B.]

XI.

I. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

LETTER FROM PROF. BUCKHAM.

BURLINGTON, VERMONT, *March* 22, 1866.

Hon. H. BARNARD:—

DEAR SIR:—I am disposed heartily to commend your purpose to "give more prominence to English Language and Literature in St. John's College than is now done in the American Colleges"—and you might have added, the *English* Colleges, in which, to their great discredit, still less is done. I feel very confident that the plan you propose, if well matured and judiciously carried out, will commend itself to intelligent friends of college education as an important advance in the right direction, and will attract to the College itself a kind of popularity, which being well-founded and therefore durable, will be of material service in improving its fortunes. I very cheerfully give you my views of what should be attempted in this department—views which are the result of considerable reflection on the subject for many years, though, I regret to say, not in all particulars tested either by my experience or observation.

To begin, as you request, with the preparatory school:—The elementary work which should have been done in the primary schools, will, probably, in a large majority of cases, have been neglected, and it will be necessary to begin with that:—I mean such instructions and exercises as will secure in the pupils good *intonation;* good *articulation;* correct *spelling* of all familiar words, not merely as they are found in spelling-books, but in their inflected forms as they occur in discourse; the ability to *read* simple and familiar prose and verse with expression and grace; and to *express their own thoughts* on topics within their range, readily and naturally, by the voice or on paper. I do not include the elements of English Grammar among the things which should have been mastered at an earlier period; that might be advisable in the case of those who are not looking forward to an extended course of study; but with those who are, I should, for two reasons, prefer to postpone grammar till they enter the High or Preparatory School; first, because they need the time for other things appropriate to their age, and too often neglected altogether for want of time, such as elementary *drawing*, the rudiments of *natural history*, such studies, in short, as employ and educate the perceptive powers: and again, such as exercise the memory merely, as arithmetical tables, and the paradigms of Latin and Greek, which, if not learned early, are never thoroughly learned; and, secondly, because their minds are then better gratified to apprehend the abstractions with which grammar deals, and can master them with better economy of time and effort. I need not specify the particular methods by which I should endeavor to perfect the pupils just entering the High School in these rudiments of the English Language. The great advantage which you will have for accomplishing this work—which is really one of the most difficult in the whole curriculum of English studies—is, that by having the whole course in this branch systematized and under the control of one mind, the lowest grade of instruction in the Preparatory School will receive direction and stimulus, and in the course of time, *models*, from the undergraduate and post-graduate departments.

Assuming that your preparatory course will cover two years, your regular college course four, and your post-graduate course one or more, I will first present an outline of the English studies for these several periods, and then add some explanations and comments.

PREPARATORY COURSE.—English Grammar.
English Composition. (Description and Simple Narrative.)
Reading.
Recitation of Prose and Verse. (No declamation.)
Conversation between class and teacher on some Topic previously arranged.
General reading under advice of Instructor in History and Biography.

COLLEGE COURSE—*First Year.*—English Composition. (Biography and History.)
Reading and Criticism of Plays of Shakspeare.
Vocal Culture and Declamation.
Conversation as above.
General Reading in History and Poetry.

Second Year.—English Composition. (Historical Views and Essays.)
Reading and Criticism of Spenser.
Trench on "Study of Words" and Graham's "Synonyms."
Vocal Culture and Declamation.
One public exhibition—pieces original.
(Quintilian in Latin Department.)

Third Year.—English Composition. Arguments. Discussions.
Text-book on Rhetoric.
Class Debates before Instructor.
Read and Criticise Chaucer.
Speaking of original pieces before all the students.
Public Exhibition.

Fourth Year.—English Composition. Literary Criticism and optional.
History of English Literature.
Anglo-Saxon Grammar and Exercises.
Lectures on Oratory and Style with Analysis of Orations.
Private Reading of English Literature.

POST-GRADUATE COURSE.—Anglo-Saxon continued.
Cognate Languages of Indo-European family.
Linguistics and Comparative Philology.
Reading and Study of Early English Literature.

On merely running the eye over the work laid out for each year, one might think it too much to be accomplished in connection with other studies. It will be seen, however, on close examination, that one-third or even one-fourth of the student's whole time devoted to study and recitation will be ample to accomplish the whole easily. One kind of exercise will be appropriated to one term; another to another; many of the exercises will occur but once a week, others, perhaps, two or three times.

PREPARATORY COURSE.

One year's consecutive study of English Grammar ought to compass the whole subject, especially when we consider that grammatical studies, in some form, will continue through the entire course of study.

Composition should be graduated to the pupil's attainments. At this stage writing on abstract themes is out of the question. The earliest natural composition is description of what the lad has seen, or of what he has read; next, the narration of events which he has witnessed, or of which he has heard or read Place and time are the categories to which the young lad's mind is first directed. In this way the *dread* of writing is done away with.

I do not think it a good plan to set young boys to *declaiming* orations, and I

never knew it to work well. Let them commit to memory and *recite* selections of prose and verse, the main object being to exercise them in modulation, emphasis, &c., and to store their memory with choice bits of literature.

I am inclined to attach great importance to this exercise, which I have named *conversation*. It seems to me the most natural and effective means within reach of the school to form habits of ease, propriety, and elegance in the conversational use of language. I would continue it regularly, once or twice a week, until the young men should be of an age such that they could profitably take part in debates, for which they will have been admirably fitted by this exercise.

COLLEGE COURSE.

First Year.

With my own classes I have succeeded to my entire satisfaction with the following plan:—I connect the reading of History with English Composition in such a way as to make each contribute to the success of the other. The class are given to understand that they are to go over in epitome the whole ground of Modern History during the year, and that their writing is to be connected with their reading for the time being. The first term is given to American History; the second to English; the third to other European History. They are advised to furnish themselves with some such epitome as Weber's, and the college library supplies the more extended works which they need to consult on the particular themes they may select. I thus secure, at least, *considerable* historical reading, and an easy, narrative style of writing, which is an admirable formation for any style.

I attach great value to the critical reading of a Play of Shakspeare with the class. "Julius Cæsar" is the one I usually select.

In connection with the historical reading of the year, it would be well to have works of imagination read by students in private. It is my experience that young men in college, at least for the first two years, desire to have their reading selected for them, and I may say that I think it a good plan, on this account as well as others, to make the Professor of English Literature also the librarian.

Second Year.

Composition now passes on to a style which requires more original thinking on the part of the writer, and yet one which furnishes him the *materials on which to think*. Last year, e. g., he depicted some of the principal events in the History of the Crusades. He is now required to trace out the permanent results of the Crusades in modern civilization.

I believe we are almost if not quite alone among colleges in having a "Sophomore Exhibition," at which the young men speak original pieces. Its beneficial effects on college writing are quite conspicuous. Mainly, I think, on that account, we have not the "Sophomorical style," as it is called, at any time. We get rid of the *symptom*, at least. If the boast may be excused, it is generally remarked that the style of our Sophomore pieces is as chaste and manly as that of higher classes elsewhere. We hold up before the young men a high standard of style; they exert themselves to the utmost to make creditable performances, and they are *entirely different writers* after from what they were before that Exhibition.

Our Professor of English Literature usually relieves the Latin Professor by reading the tenth and eleventh books of Quintilian with the Sophomores, so as

to take advantage of the opportunity of enforcing the excellent rhetorical precepts there found. In fact, we treat Quintilian as a text-book in Rhetoric, and, I think, with good results.

Third Year.

It is my plan to bring the strictly *rhetorical* instruction of the course within this year. We sadly need a good sensible text-book in Rhetoric. Having looked over all the books we have in this department, I find nothing so good as *Campbell*, which is somewhat antiquated and in many parts obsolete, but has more sound and useful matter than any other I know of.

During this and the following years the classes may be invited to exercise their critical faculties on each other's performances. This plan has always worked well with us—adding to the interest of the exercise, and serving as a *praxis* on the principles and rules of rhetoric.

Fourth Year.

I have recently introduced a new feature into the writing of this year. I give up the whole of the second term, so far as composition is concerned, to the preparation of a single disquisition, by each member of the class, upon some subject which requires research, allowing them as much space as they need to set forth their theme exhaustively. You will readily see the object I have in view. A scholar ought to be able—and he certainly will often be required in practical life—to take a subject and read and study and think upon it so as to be competent to present it in all its bearings, no matter how ignorant of it he may be when he begins. I have had treatises read before the class which would be creditable to any quarterly in the country. As soon as they have got their materials ready, and have mapped out their work, I discuss their plan with them before the class, and endeavor to give them some good notions of *method.*

POST GRADUATE.

A post-graduate course, according to my idea, should consist mainly of lectures, not on the established facts and principles of the sciences, but on the new, unsettled themes which all living sciences always present. The lecturers in the post-graduate course should be, as far as possible, the vanguard of the discoverers in the several sciences; and for the reason that the student at this stage should be prompted to *original work* in the fields of study which he has selected. The department of linguistics, or of English as related to this new and interesting science, will furnish a splendid field for the ambitious student. The two volumes of "Lectures" by Geo. P. Marsh, on "The English Language," afford an excellent illustration of what I mean.

I have thus given you an *outline* of what I think might be accomplished in the department of English Language and Literature during such a course as you propose. The mode of setting it forth is crude, I know, as I am obliged to write in great haste, but the main features of the plan are the result of considerable thought and some experience. I should rejoice to see an American College giving due prominence to the study of our own language and literature *without leaving other things undone.*

Again congratulating you on your project, and hoping to see you carry it, as well as all the other good plans you may be forming, into successful operation n St. John's College. I am very sincerely yours,

MATTHEW H. BUCKHAM.

METHOD OF PHILOLOGICAL STUDY OF ENGLISH IN LAFAYETTE COLLEGE, EASTON, PENN.

LAFAYETTE COLLEGE claims to have been the first College in the country to establish a separate professorship for the philological study of English, and to elevate it to its proper rank by associating it with Comparative Philology, and making it the center of the study of languages.

The Lafayette course has an organization of all the languages taught, so that each shall be used as a means of progress in every other; but especially so that each may be made a means of special culture in English. The rendering of Latin into English, for example, is really just as much a study of English as of Latin, and may be made, and is made in this course, emphatically and deliberately so.

Fertile study proceeds by comparison. For the best study of language more than one tongue should be studied. For the best study of English, Latin and Anglo-Saxon are needed; but French and German may be used in their places.

In view of these truths it is thought best that after parsing and analysis of English have been thoroughly learned, other languages should be studied up to about the Sophomore year. The following extract from the Catalogue will give a pretty good notion of the methods used when the English classics are taken up:—

The English Language is studied in the same way as the Latin and the Greek. An English classic, Milton's Paradise Lost, for example, is studied just as the most skillful Professors of Greek teach the Iliad of Homer. The text is minutely analyzed, the idioms explored, and synonyms weighed; the mythology, biography, history, metaphyics, theology, geography, are all looked up; and whatever else is necessary, that every allusion may be comprehended.

The character of the author, and his life and times are also studied, since these are necessary to a comprehension of his work and his speech; and comparison is continually made with the language of other great English authors, and of the English Bible; so that the relation of each author to English literature and the English race may be carefully examined.

The rhetorical laws of English Composition, and the principles of Epic and Dramatic art are applied to Milton, Shakspeare, and other English Classics, line by line; and an attempt is made to comprehend the particular beauties and apprehend the general plan of the great representative works of English literature.

The text is also made the foundation of more general study of language; the origin and history of recurring words, the laws by which words grow up from their roots in our language; the laws by which changes from one language to another are governed, are stamped on the mind by continual iteration; and an attempt is made to ground all these facts and laws in laws of mind, and of the organs of speech.

For this best discipline and learning which modern philology enables us to draw from the study of languages, no language affords a better field than our own English: and it is believed that the culture in this department will be to a considerable extent a substitute in the Scientific course, for that derived from the study of Greek and Latin, as it is usually pursued in our colleges.

Anglo-Saxon, German, and French, are studied in the same way, and all the languages of the course are systematically compared in the light of modern philology, so as to illustrate each other and language in general.

Possibly a more minute description of the common RECITATION DRILL with beginners may be of some interest.

A grammar lesson is first heard. The other lesson is, say ten lines in Milton. A name is drawn, the student rises, and is told to read. He reads in their nat-

ural order those words which belong to the first clause. If there are words understood to complete the syntax, those are read too in their proper places. Then the analysis of the clause is completed more or less minutely, as it is more or less difficult or interesting. The relations of the clauses to each other are asked about. Corresponding forms of syntax in Latin, Greek, and other languages which have been studied, are called for, and more or less attempt made to ground syntactical rules in the laws of thought. If there are proper names, allusions, passages imitated from other authors, peculiar opinions, famous phrases, etc., those are asked about, and explained if information about them is not accessible.

Then we go into the discussion of words and phrases, asking first for the corresponding words and laws of change (Grimm's law and the like) in all the other languages they have studied; the root; radical idea; kindred words; meaning by derivation; original meaning in actual use; changes of meaning and explanation of the connection of thought; every thing in Trench's line,—indications of history, character, moral suggestions, etc., being specially noted; then the precise meanings in present use; synonyms; analysis and history of idioms. The rhetorical figures are also called for. This is the staple of drill. At first we get over only five or six lines a day, as every word is called for; but soon the recurring words become familiar, and the class gets on faster,—thirty, forty, fifty lines a day. The topics embraced in the drill change, of course, as the classes advance. Those who are interested in the matter may find more minute details in "March's Method of Philological Study of the English Language."

WRITING.—The use of writing can not be overrated as a means of compelling study and reading. Handing in a written analysis makes sure that the student does not extemporize his analysis. Written derivation papers make sure that the words are really looked out in the dictionary. Synonym papers have a similar use. So in respect to reading; to require papers giving the views of certain authors who should be read, compels the reading of them. A paper treating a subject according to an outline of topics given beforehand, will require the investigation of each of the topics indicated. In the Lafayette course daily short papers of analysis, etymology, or translation into a foreign language are required, and weekly essays on given subjects connected with the study of the author. A play of Shakspeare can be handled pretty well in one term with five recitations a week, a class made to study as hard as on Latin or Greek, and read the most famous Shakspearian commentators. The Professor should see to it that they have the books to be read, by actually putting them in their hands. This writing should be distinctly understood to be a simple recording of thought, and not one of the grand rhetorical performances which students must write for great occasions.

CONVERSATION is encouraged at all times when the class is not under drill; but on the essay day it is made a part of the regular business in this way. Those who are to read are drawn one by one, and as soon as each has finished, criticism, remark, discussion, is invited under the direction and aid of the Professor. It is intended that this talking shall make sure that what has been written about is understood. Questions are asked particular persons as to their views of this and that, and their reasons for them when there is backwardness.

LECTURES.—Very little reliance is placed on formal lectures. On most of

those topics on which they are usually given, an outline of heads of thought and references to books are given, and students are required to write their own lectures.

DECLAMATION.—Weekly declamations in class are had. The class studying any author in which suitable passages occur, are required to declaim such passages, and their delivery specially criticised as to whether it brings out the precise shades of meaning which have been noticed in the critical study. An important end is to have these passages learned by heart.

HISTORY OF LITERATURE.—The only good way to master a literature is by picking out representative authors of representative eras; then representative works of these authors; and lastly representative passages from the works. The representative passages should be studied with all possible thoroughness, and their representative character grasped; the works also as æsthetic wholes should be carefully handled, and understood in their relations to their author, their age, the whole literature. Such study is kept up through the whole course. A summary of the whole is reserved for the Senior year, when a compendium of English Literature is gone over.

DIFFICULTIES.—To a teacher who can teach any language the only difficulty of importance in teaching English is that of getting the students to work up the lesson beforehand—the fatal facility of extemporizing English. In order to understand, and master, and love an author, we must dwell on him word by word and line by line. The main formal helps to conquer this difficulty are thorough drill in etymology, translating into a foreign tongue, and abundant use of writing; but a thorough conquest must doubtless come from the enthusiasm and vigor of the teacher.

Finally, it is to be noticed that this Lafayette course of philological study is not intended as a substitute for the usual study of rhetoric and oratory, the writing of themes as an art, vocal culture, and the like. All these are also studied at Lafayette as at other colleges. It is to be classed with the study of the Latin and Greek classics. It is also interesting for the classical scholar to notice (we use the language of the inaugural address of that most judicious and learned supporter of this new department, President McPhail) that "such a study of English is also a study of Greek and Latin; a study of exactly that part of them which it is most important for us to know, namely, that which enters into our own language; and a study of them exactly in that way which will make what we learn of them most useful, available, and thoroughly known, namely, in connection with those English words and phrases to which they have given rise."

"We do not then substitute English for Latin and Greek; but rather pursue the mutual and coördinate study of all three for the better understanding and acquisition of the whole. We expect more knowledge of Latin and Greek from our ten terms of ancient languages plus two of English, than from twelve of ancient."

The following extracts from Prof. March's "*Method of Philological Study of the English Language*" will exhibit in detail the recitation drill adopted by the author with his classes in the English classics in Lafayette College.

NOTE.

METHOD OF PHILOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE; by Francis A. March, Professor of the English Language, &c., in Lafayette College, Easton, Pa. *New York: Harper & Brothers.* 1865.

In the following extracts from his method of studying Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, which are introduced here to illustrate the method pursued by Prof. March with his classes in Lafayette College, the figures (432, 460, &c.) refer to sections in Fowler's School Grammar, and + means *together with* unless when it is suffixed to the number of a page or section, when it means *and the following.* For fuller information, and as a convenient and suggestive manual for teachers, we refer them to the volume itself, with the remark that the Method, which opens with Bunyan—(his Times, Life, &c.,) is progressive, and passes from Bunyan to Milton, Shakspeare, Spenser, and Chaucer.

BUNYAN—HIS TIMES, LIFE, WORKS, LANGUAGE.

INTRODUCTORY.—Write an account of the life and works of Bunyan; especially of the Pilgrim's Progress, the circumstances under which it was written, its character, its influence and fame.—(*See Chambers' Cyclopædia of English Literature, or Cleveland's Compendium of English Literature, and works there referred to.*)

What famous Englishmen lived at the same time with Bunyan? Was he an associate of any of them? How old was he when the Paradise Lost was published? Does he show any knowledge of it? What important events occurred in England during his life? In America? Did he take part in any of them? When and where was the Pilgrim's Progress written? How old was Bunyan then? What scholastic preparation had he for writing a great work? What preparation from self-culture, preaching, writing? From religious experience? Had he, on the whole, been long and well-trained for this work? What external circumstances helped him? His imprisonment? What books had he in prison? Was it a good thing that he had those only? Were the times favorable to such a work? How so? Did the Pilgrim's Progress take rank at once among the great works of genius? Does it now? On what grounds?

What is an allegory? 432. Had Bunyan scriptural example for this mode of teaching? What difference between an allegory and a parable? 432, 460. Are there any beings in classic mythology analogous to the characters of Bunyan? What difference between an allegory and a myth? Did Bunyan write other allegories? What famous English metrical allegory? What are the peculiar merits of the Pilgrim's Progress?

In studying the life and times of each author, the student should look up information every where. The habit of investigating and writing out results makes the full man and the exact man at once; it divests composition of ninety-nine parts of its horrors, and it quickens thought ninety-nine times as much as beating the brain for original brilliances. If books are not to be had, the teacher should give the needed facts and thoughts in a lecture, and the students should take notes and rewrite.—*Preface.*

BEGINNING OF THE PILGRIM'S PROGRESS.

As I walked through the wilderness of this world, I lighted on a certain place where was a den, and laid me down in that place to sleep; and, as I slept, I dreamed a dream. I dreamed, and, behold, I saw a man clothed with rags, standing in a certain place, with his

face from his own house, a book in his hand, and a great burden upon his back.

I looked, and saw him open the book and read therein; and, as he read, he wept, and trembled; and, not being able longer to contain, he brake out with a lamentable cry, saying, What shall I do?

(Study Becker's Syntax, 404–415, and Rhetorical Forms, 470–476. Write an analysis. A model is given in Appendix A.)

Read the first clause? "*As—world.*" Is it a leading or a dependent clause? Read the leading clause! "*I—place.*" What kind of sentence is it—declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, or optative? 404. What is the verb? 175, IV. The subject? 174. What words make the predicative combination? 405. *On* is the sign of a combination between what words? *Lighted+on place* is what kind of combination? 407. Does *on place* complete or extend the predicate? 408. Why so? Is it an adjunct of time, place, mode, or cause? 408. *Certain+place* is what kind of combination? 406. Is not *certain* superfluous? If so, have we tautology, pleonasm, or verbosity? 473. *A+place* is what kind of combination? 406. Colloquial form of *lighted?* What grammatical equivalent for *lighted on a place?* 412. Can you give a better expression? If so, explain why you think it better! What is the next clause? Why do you give "*As—world*" before "*Where—den?*" What kind of clause—subordinate or coördinate? 409. Substantive, adjective, or adverbial? 411. As an adverb it modifies what? What kind of abverb is it—of place, time, cause, condition, or manner? 411, III. What grammatical equivalents for *as I walked?* 412+. What is the connective? 396, IV. The verb? 175, IV. Subject? 174. Predicative combination? 405. *Through* is a sign of combination between what two words? *Walked+through wilderness* is what kind of combination? 407. Does *through wilderness* complete or extend the predicate? 408. Why so? Is it an adjunct of time, place, mode, or cause? 408. *The+wilderness* is what kind of combination? 406. Which note in 370 describes this use of *the?* *Of* is a sign of combination between what words? *Wilderness+of world* is what kind of combination? 406. Why so? Does *of* usually connect two nouns in an attributive relation? Is any other preposition like it in that respect? What reason for this in its meaning? *This+world* is what kind of combination? 406. Is *of this world* logically a partitive or appositive? 359, 362, VII. What grammatical equivalent for this clause, using a possessive case? 357, IV. Using an adjective for *wilderness?* for *of world?*

What is the next clause? "*Where—den.*" What kind of clause—subordinate or coördinate? 409. Substantive, adjective, or adverbial? 411, II. What noun does it describe? What grammatical equivalent for *where* containing a relative pronoun? 412, 396, VIII. What is the connective? 396, IV. The verb? 175, IV, Subject? 174. Predicate? 353, 408. Of the three predications mentioned in 353 as possible, which is this? Can not position be predicated? Can an adverb of place be a true predicate?—(Unabridged Gram., 539, II., 5.) *A+den* is what kind of combination? 406. What peculiarity of collocation in this clause? 356. Is this case described in 356? A grammatical equivalent giving the present idiom for this clause? One reversing the collocation? One abridging this clause so as to include it in the former? Have the three first clauses the best possible collocation? Why not put the leading clause first? How could the others be arranged then? What objection to each arrangement? Can grammatical equivalents be used which will make the clause now first in place the leading clause? Would it not be better to say, *I was walking when I lighted?* Why not?

What is the next clause? What kind of clause—subordinate or coördinate? 409. Coördinate with what? (Name a clause always by giving its verb; *e. g.*, in answer to the last question, say, *The clause in which* lighted *is the verb.*) Is it copulative, adversative, disjunctive, or casual? 410. What is the connective? 410. The verb? 175, IV. Subject? 174. Direct object? 360. Predicative combination? 405. First objective combination? 407. What kind—completing or extending? 408. Is *laid me* a true reflective? 286. What

grammatical equivalents for it? 374, V., VI. Would not *I assumed a recumbent position* be better? 473. Would not *I lay* be better? Why not? 473. What is the second objective combination? Is it completing or extending? 408. Why so? An adjunct of time, place, mode, or cause? 408. What is the third objective combination? What combination is *in* the sign of? *That+place* is what kind of combination? 406. What grammatical equivalent for *is that place?* 412. Would it not be better rhetorically not to repeat the word *place?* Why not? What is the fourth objective combination? What grammatical equivalent for *to sleep?* 413, 5. Why is *to sleep* called an abridged sentence? Is the grammatical equivalent which you give for it a subordinate or coördinate sentence? 409. Substantive, adjective, or adverbial? 411. In what government? 411, 1, 5. Does *to* here have its proper force as a preposition? What force? 388, II. Can you illustrate by using a noun and preposition in the clause? Which is better here, rhetorically, *to repose* or *to sleep?* Why? 473.

Who is the *I* in this sentence? Is *walked through the wilderness*, etc., allegorical? 432. What is the literal meaning? The metaphorical? Is the language drawn from the Bible? (Judges, xi., 16; Psalm xxiii., 4; and study Cruden's Concordance.) Is *lighted on a certain place* a biblical expression? (Gen., xxviii., 11.) Is the use of *den* allegorical? What are its two meanings? Is there a biblical association intended? (Hebrews, xi., 38.) Is *I laid me*, etc., biblical? (Psalms iii., 5; iv., 8: Gen., xxviii., 11.) Did Bunyan have Gen., xxviii., 10+distinctly before him here? Can you state a simile in which the Pilgrim's Progress shall be compared to Jacob's ladder? 467.

What is the next clause? Is it subordinate or coördinate? 409. Coördinate with what clause. (Name the clause by its verb.) What is the connective? 410. The verb? 175, IV. The subject? 174. Predicative combination? 405. Objective combination? 407. What attributive combination? 406. What name is applied in 385, VIII., 360, to an objective relation like that of *dream?* Is *cognate objective* or *factitive object* the better name for *dream?* Why? Is *dreamed a dream* a biblical expression? Gen., xxxvii., 5–10. Is there not tautology, pleonasm, or verbosity in this clause? 473.

What is the next clause? Is it subordinate or coördinate? 409. Substantive, adjective, or adverbial? 411, III. Completing or extending? 411, III. An adjunct of place, time, cause, condition, or manner? 411, III. What is the verb? 175, IV. The subject? 174. The predicative combination? 405. Does *sl-pt* denote momentary or continued action? Why not say *I was sleeping?* 255. Why not say *while sleeping?* Why not say *during the season of repose?* Why not put this clause after *dream?*

The next clause? What kind of sentence—declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, or optative? 404. What kind of combination? 405. Is this anadiplosis? 435.

The next clause? Of what clause is *behold* the verb? What is its subject? 380, VIII. What kind of sentence? 404. The clause has the syntax of what part of speech? 305. What is the verb in the clause with *and?* Its subject? 174. Direct object? 360. *Clothed* combines with what? What kind of combination? 406. *Rags* combines with what? What kind of combination? 407. Which word is the sign of this combination? *Standing* combines with what? What kind of combination? 406. Is *in a certain place* necessary to the sense? Is there tautology, pleonasm, or verbosity in the clause? 473. What combination is *in* the sign of? What attributive combinations with *place?* 406. What combination is *with* the sign of? What grammatical equivalent for *with his face?* 412+. What combination is *from* the sign of? *Face+house?* 406. Does *from* usually denote an attributive combination? What ellipsis here? 354, 403. Does *from his own house* mean *from home?* Why prefer the former expression? What attributive combinations with *house?* 406. Is *his own house* etymologically an equivalent for *his house that he owned?* What does *book* combine with? What ellipsis with it—*with*, or *having*, or *who had*, or *being?* 354, 403. Why so? What ellipsis between *book* and *hand?* What combination is *in* the sign of? What does *and* connect—two sentences, or like parts of the same sentence? 401. Supply an ellipsis after *and* so that it may connect two sentences! What attributive combinations with *burden?* 406. *Burden* is

parsed like what preceding word? *Upon* is the sign of what combination—*burden+back*, or *borne+back?* Is *upon his back* equivalent to an adjective or to an adverb? Are the traits mentioned in a natural order—(1,) *clothed*, (2,) *standing*, (3,) *facing*, etc.? Why repeat *I dreamed* at the beginning of this sentence? 435. Is it a poetical form? (Compare Longfellow's Hiawatha.) What grammatical equivalent to incorporate it in the next clause? Would not *I saw in my dream* be better? Grammatical equivalent for *clothed with rags?* 412+. Why not say *ragged?* Prov., xxiii., 21. What is the metaphorical sense? Isaiah, lxiv., 6. What is the rhetorical effect of *in a certain place?* 473. Is not *place* repeated too often? Amend the language, or defend it! Metaphorical sense of *face from his own house?* Luke, xiv., 33. What book is in his hand? Metaphorical sense of *burden upon his back?* Psalm xxxviii., 4. What danger from frequent ellipsis? 470. Can you supply, or omit, or alter any words so as add to the perspicuity or liveliness of the sentence? 470+.

What is the next clause? What kind of sentence—declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, or optative? 404. What kind of combination? 405.

What is the next clause? Is it subordinate or coördinate? 409. Coördinate with what clause? (Name it by its verb.) Is it copulative, adversative, disjunctive, or casual? 410. What is the connective? 410. The verb? 175, IV. The subject? 174. By what figure is the subject omitted? 354. What is the rhetorical effect of ellipsis? 403. What direct object? 360. What relation has *him* to *open?* Why is the subject of the infinitive put in the objective? Is it usually the same when expressed as the object of the preceding verb? 388, VI. Government of *open?* 388, III. Does it complete or extend the predicate? 408, I., *e*. What grammatical equivalent for *him open?* Which note in 370 describes the use of *the* here? Why not say *that book?* What does *and* connect? *Read* combines with what? What kind of combination? 408. *Read+therein* is what kind of combination? 408. Composition of *therein?* Which pronoun is *there* from? 236. What grammatical equivalent for *therein* containing the pronoun *that?* 396, VIII.

Next clause? What kind of clause? 409, 410. Coördinate with what clause? (Name it by its leading verb.) What is the connective? 410. Verb? 175, IV. Subject? 174. Combination? 405. What is *wept* from? Is it a weak or strong verb? 276. Why not *weped?* 85–87.

Next clause? What kind of clause? Subordinate or coördinate? 409. Substantive, adjective, or adverbial? 411. As an adverb it modifies what? What kind of abverb? Of place, time, cause, condition, or manner? 411, III., 2. What grammatical equivalent for *as?* 412+. Is not *while* more precise? Is it not better? Does *read* denote continued action? Is not *while he was reading* better? Why not put this clause after *wept?* What effect on the perspicuity of *and trembled?* What effect on the anadiplosis? 435.

Next clause? What kind of clause? 409. Coördinate with what clause? Is the order natural—(1,) *wept*, (2,) *trembled*, (3,) *cried?* What rhetorical figure? 444. Which word is the connective? 410. The verb? 175, IV. Subject? 174. By what figure is the subject omitted? 354. What rhetorical effect has the ellipsis? 403. What biblical reference here? Acts, xvi., 30+. Is it an allusion? 433.

Next clause? What kind of clause? 409. Coördinate with what clause? The connective? 410. The verb? 175. IV. The subject? 174. What attributive combinations with *he?* 406. *Not* combines with what? Kind of combination? 407. *Being* combines with what? Kind of combination? 406. *Able* combines with what? *Longer* combines with what? What combination is *to* the sign of? Does *to* have its usual meaning as a preposition here? Give a grammatical equivalent for *able to contain* which shall use some other preposition? Is *contain* used now as it is here? What grammatical equivalent for it in use now? 412+. What is the biblical idiotism? 1 Corinthians, vii., 9. Explain the meaning of *contain himself?* What does *himself* mean? What does *out* combine with? Kind of combination? 407. Kind of adjunct? 408. What connection of thought between the common meaning of *brake* and its meaning here? What is broken in this case? Connection of thought between the common meanings of *out* and its meaning here? Forth from what does

it mean? What combination is *with* the sign of? *Brake+with cry* is what kind of combination? 407. *With cry* completes or extends the predicate? 408. Is it an adjunct of time, place, mode, or cause? 408. What attributive combinations with *cry*? 406. What does *saying* combine with? *Brake+saying* is what kind of combination? 408. Completing or extending? 408, 2. *d.* What other name for a participle used adverbially? (Gerund. Unabr. Gram., 539. VI., 2.) How many abridged sentences in this clause? What grammatical equivalents for *being, to contain,* and *saying,* will develop this clause into four clauses? 412+. What rhetorical grounds for preferring the present form? Is it favorable to perspicuity? 470–472. To liveliness? 473.

Next clause? What kind of sentence in form? 404. Direct or indirect interrogative? 404. In relation to the former clause is this clause subordinate or coördinate? Substantive, adjective, or adverb? 411. How is it parsed as a substantive? 411, 1, 3. What is its verb? 175, IV. Subject? 174. Direct object? 360. Predicative combination? 405. Objective combination? 407. Peculiarity of collocation of *what?* 361, 386. Of *I?* 356, 1; 384, 7. What grammatical equivalent for *shall do* containing an infinitive with *to?* 271, 3. Analyze *shall do:* parse *shall* alone! 271, III. Does it here have its primitive sense of *ought?* 256, 272. State its precise meaning! In what mode is *do* when parsed separate from *shall?* 389. Is this the objective or gerundial infinitive? 389, 263. Whence is this language drawn? Acts, ii., 37; xvi., 30.

Synoptical. How many verbs in the active voice are found in the extract now analyzed? How many in the passive voice? What is the rhetorical effect of the active as compared with the passive? Which makes the actor more prominent? Is the actor necessarily mentioned at all with the passive? Is the management of the verbs in this passage well suited to lively description? How many nouns in the extract? How many descriptive adjectives? Are they noticeably many or few? Would it not embellish the style to use more—*e. g.,* "*As I walked solitary and alone through the waste howling wilderness of this sin-polluted world,*" etc.? How many descriptive adverbs? Can you point out how more might have been used with good effect? How many personal pronouns in the extract? Are they noticeably many or few? What is the rhetorical effect of using many? 222, 226, 228. Unabridged Gram., 291+. Are they signs of personality and life? Would it not be better to put *we* for *I?* 226. What is egotism? Is it usually lively? Why? How many independent, coördinate, and substantive clauses in the extract? How many adjective and adverbial clauses? What is the rhetorical effect of the substantive clause—*e. g.,* "*Saying, What shall I do?*" compared with the adjective—*e. g.,* "*Inquiring as to the duties which he ought to perform?*" 473, 474. Why is the former more lively than the latter? What connection has this with the remark in 474 about conjunctions? How many points can you specify in which Bunyan's syntax is specially suited to allegorical writing?

How many words in this extract not of Anglo-Saxon origin? (*Certain, place, face, tremble, able, contain, lamentable, cry.*) Is this a large number for good English? (See Appendix B.) Do these words contribute their share to the expressiveness of the passage? Can you substitute better words from the Anglo-Saxon? Are any of them not biblical? Do 43, 61–64, understate the expressiveness of the Romanic portion of English? Is the monosyllabic character of English (95) inherited from the Anglo-Saxon? Should Bunyan be expected to use a very large proportion of Anglo-Saxon words—from his education? from his subject? from those for whom he wrote? from his favorite books? from any other considerations? 15–22, 42, 43, 59–65. Is Bunyan's diction (his words and phrases) drawn from the Bible? Is this a merit? Why? What intrinsic merits has the language of the English Bible? Is it made more perspicuous by early familiarity? What of its associations? How many particulars can you specify in which Bunyan's diction is specially adapted to an allegory like the Pilgrim's Progress? Does Bunyan use any poetical forms? What one is found in "I *w*alked through the *w*ilderness of this *w*orld?" 491. What in the repetition of *I dreamed?* (Compare Longfellow's Hiawatha.) Is a peculiar regular recurrence of accent to be found in the prose of the Pilgrim's Progress? Can you give striking examples of it? What kind of meter is the following extract? 522.

"So they went up to the Mountains, to behold the gardens and orchards,
The vineyards and fountains of water; where also they drank and washed themselves,
And did freely eat of the vineyards. Now there were on the tops of those Mountains,
Shepherds feeding their flocks; and they stood by the highway-side.
The Pilgrims therefore went to them, and leaning upon their staffs,
As is common with weary pilgrims, when they stand to talk with any by the way,
They ask-ed, Whose Delectable Mountains are these?
And whose be the sheep, that feed upon them?"

(The length of these lines is determined by the sense; both halves of the line usually cut a foot. The incorrect punctuation is copied as showing perception of the meter. As dactylic hexameters the first two verses would be:—

So' they went | up' to the | Mountains ‡ t' be | hold' the | gar'dens and | orch'ards, the
Vine'yards and | foun'tains of | wa'ter; ‡ where | al'so they | drank' and | wash'ed them-)

Does the dactylic cadence run throughout the Pilgrim's Progress? Is it specially suited to this kind of writing? What likeness in Homer's, Goethe's, Longfellow's use of it? What likeness to the alliterative meters of the North? 491. What of the capacity of English for dactylic meter in view of the Pilgrim's Progress? Was Bunyan a maker of rhymes and verses? Did he write any dactylic verses? Or know any thing of the classic meters? Was he a true poet? If so, why did he not write better verses?

In Bunyan, the author aims to bring up the subject of Syntax—Grammatical Equivalents—Rhetorical Forms—Historical Elements.

In Milton, he adds to the above Punctuation—Poetical Forms—Epic Art.

In Shakspeare, he adds to both Etymology of Pronouns—Pronominal Elements—Instructive Forms—Dramatic Art—Creative Power of Language.

In Spenser, he adds Derivation—Romance of Chivalry—Spenserian Stanza.

In Chaucer, Phonetic Elements—Orthographic Elements—Historical Elements—Criticism of Uncertain Texts.

EXTRACT FROM LETTER OF PROF. SAMUEL PORTER.

"I agree with you entirely in postponing a philological study of the English language until the pupil has been inspired with the love and acquired the habit of appreciative reading. Prior to, as well as parallel with a historical study of the language, I too would advise a good degree of familiarity with the biography of the great writers of different periods, the practice of original composition, and the lexical analysis of words—that is, the tracing out of their several meanings and applications developed one from another, with illustrations of each, by way of examples, original or borrowed, to such extent as to make the principles of lexicography understood. Important words in reading-lessons should have their meaning explained and referred to the proper lexical head by the pupil.

While I would begin by working backward from the present era, I would, as early as the last year of the high school course, have the advanced pupils enter on a critical study of the historical development of our own language and its literature—and in the following order:—(1.) The Anglo-Saxon. (2.) Wycliffe and Chaucer. (3.) Tyndale, Latimer, and More. (4.) Shakspeare. (5.) Milton, &c. I would not include Spenser in a philological course, because his diction is not characteristic of any one period, and especially not of his own age. Wycliffe and Tyndale should by all means be included. Before entering on Chaucer, the Ormalum might be read, and copious extracts from Anglo-Saxon authors should not only be studied carefully, but committed to memory."

APPARATUS.

In addition to the necessary furniture of a school, such as seats, desks, and other fixtures and articles required for the accommodation of pupils and teacher, and the order and cleanliness of the premises, every school-room should be furnished with such apparatus as shall enable the teacher to employ the hand and eye of every pupil in illustration and experiment, so far as may be practicable and desirable in the course of instruction pursued in the school. It is therefore important, in the internal arrangement of a school-house, to have regard to the safe-keeping, display, and use of such apparatus as the grade of the school, for which the house is intended, may require. A few suggestions will therefore be made on these points, and in aid of committees and trustees in selecting apparatus.

1. In a large school, and in schools of the highest grade, there will be need of a separate apartment appropriated to the safe-keeping of the apparatus, and in some departments of instruction, for the proper use of the same. But in small schools, and as far as practicable in all schools, maps, diagrams, and other apparatus, should be in view of the school at all times.

This will not only add to the attractions of the school, and make the school-room look like a workshop of education, but will awaken a desire in the pupils to know the uses of the various articles, and to become acquainted with the facts and principles which can thus be seen, heard, or handled.

2. Such articles as are liable to be injured by dust, or handling, must be provided with an appropriate room, or a case of sufficient size, having glazed and sliding doors, and convenient shelves.

The doors should not be glazed to the floor, on account of liability to breakage, and also to admit of drawers for maps and diagrams, and a closet for such articles as may be uninteresting or unseemly to the eye, although useful in their place.

The shelves should be movable, so as to admit of additions of larger or smaller specimens of apparatus, and also of such arrangement as the varying tastes of different teachers may require.

3. There should be a table, with a level top, and capable of being made perfectly firm, unless the teacher's desk can be so, for the teacher to place his apparatus on, when in use.

4. The apparatus of every school-room should be selected with reference to the grade of schools to which it is appropriated, and in Primary and District schools in particular, should be of simple construction and convenient for use.

5. As far as practicable, the real object in nature and art, and not a diagram, or model, should be secured.

The following list of articles is necessarily very imperfect, but it may help to guide committees in their search after apparatus.

Articles indispensable in Schools of every Grade.

A clock.

The cardinal points of the heavens painted on the ceiling, or on the teacher's platform, or the floor of the recitation room.

As much blackboard, or black surface on the walls of the school-room, and the recitation rooms, as can be secured. A portion of this black surface should be in full view of the whole school, for passing explanations; and another portion out of the way, within reach of the smallest pupils. One or more movable blackboards, or large slate, with one or more movable stands or supporters.

All the appendages to a blackboard, such as chalk, crayons, and a rubber of soft cloth, leather, or sheepskin, and a pointer.

An inkstand, fixed into the desk, with a lid, and with a pen-wiper attached.

A slate, iron-bound at the corners, and covered with list, or India-rubber cloth, for every desk, with a pencil-holder and sponge attached. A few extra slates for the use of the youngest pupils, under the care and at the discretion of the teacher.

A map of the district, town, county, and state.

A terrestrial globe, properly mounted, or suspended by a wire.

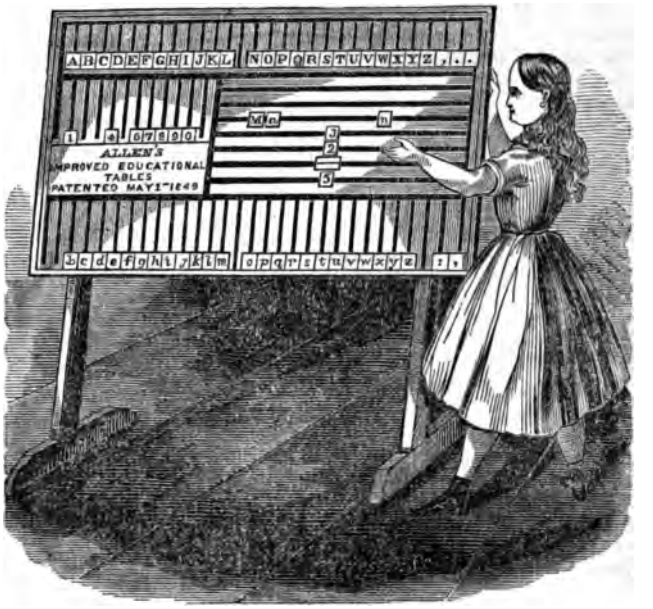
The measure of an inch, foot, yard, and rod, marked off on the edge of the blackboard, or on the wall.

Real measures of all kinds, linear, superficial, solid, and liquid; as a foot-rule, a yard-stick, quarts, bushels, an ounce, pound, &c., for the exercise of the eye and hand.

Vases for flowers and natural grasses.

Apparatus for a Primary or District School.

Allen's *Education Table* will be found very useful in teaching the Alphabet, Spelling, Reading, and Arithmetic, to little children at home, and in Primary Schools.



Allen's Education Table consists of a board or table, along the centre of which are horizontal grooves, or raised ledges forming grooves between them, that connect with perpendicular grooves or compartments on the sides, in which are inserted an assortment of movable blocks, on the face of which are cut the letters of the alphabet, both capitals and small, the nine digits and cipher, and all the usual pauses and signs used in composition and arithmetic.

The letters, figures and signs are large, so as to be readily recognized by all the members of a large class, and from even the extremity of a large schoolroom, and are so assorted and arranged as to be easily slid from the perpendicular grooves or compartments into the horizontal grooves, and there combined into syllables, words and sentences, or used in simple arithmetical operations. When the lesson in the alphabet, spelling, reading, composition, or arithmetic, is finished, the blocks can be returned to their appropriate places.

The experience of many teachers in schools of different grades, and of many mothers at home, (the God-appointed school for little children, next to which should be ranked the well organized Primary School, with a bright, gentle, affectionate and patient female teacher,) has demonstrated that by accustoming the child, either individually, or in a class, to select letter by letter, and move them from their appropriate case to the centre of the board, and there combining them into syllables and words, a knowledge of the alphabet, and of words, is acquired in a much shorter time and in a much more impressive and agreeable manner, than by any of even the best methods now pursued.

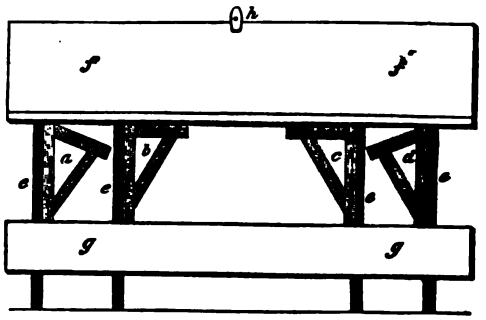
All of the advantages derived from the method of dictation, and the use of the slate and blackboard, in teaching children the alphabet, spelling, reading, and the use of capital letters and pauses, as well as the elementary principles of arithmetic, such as numeration, addition, subtraction, &c., can be secured by the introduction of this Table into our Primary and District Schools.

A *Moveable Black-board*, or prepared black surface of considerable extent, is indispensable.

The upper portion of the standing blackboard should be inclined back a little from the perpendicular, and along the lower edge there should be a projection or trough to catch the particles detached from the chalk or crayon when in use, and a drawer to receive the sponge, cloth, lamb's-skin, or other soft article used in cleaning the surface of the board.

Blackboards, even when made with great care, and of the best seasoned materials, are liable to injury and defacement from warping, opening of seams, or splitting when exposed to the overheated atmosphere of school-rooms, unless they are set in a frame like a slate, or the panel of a door.

By the following ingenious, and cheap contrivance, a few feet of board can be converted into a table, a sloping desk, one or two blackboards, and a form or seat, and the whole folded up so as not to occupy a space more than five inches wide, and be easily moved from one room to another. It is equally well adapted to a school-room, class-room, library or nursery.



f f Under side of the swinging board, suspended by rule-joint hinges, when turned up, painted black or dark chocolate.

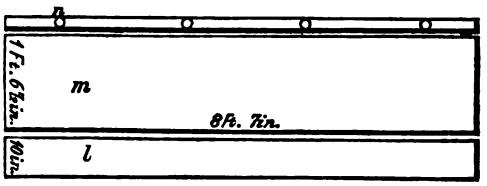
a d Folding brackets, inclined at an angle of 75 degrees, and swung out to support the board when a sloping desk is required.

b c Folding brackets to support the swinging board when a bench or flat table is required.

e e e e Uprights attached to the wall.

g g Form to be used when the swinging board is let down, and to be supported by folding legs. The under side can be used as a blackboard for small children.

h A wooden button to retain the swinging board when turned up for use as a blackboard.



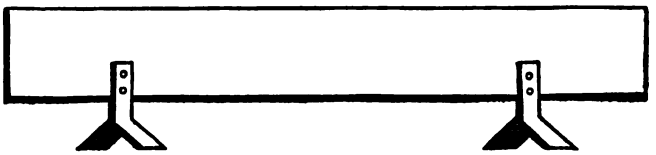
n Opening to receive inkstands, and deposit for slate, pencil, chalk, &c.

m Surface of swinging board when let down.

l Surface of form or bench.

When not in use, or let down, the desk and form should hang flush with each other.

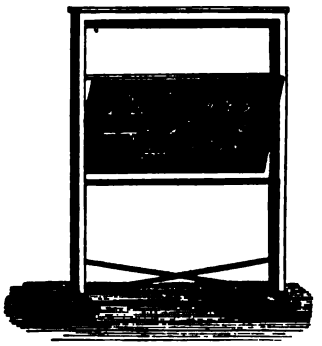
A cheap movable blackboard can be made after the following cut (Fig. 3



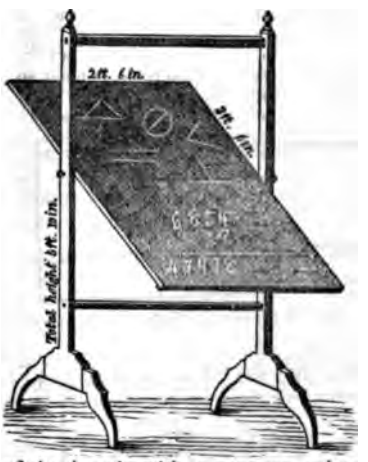
A movable stand to support a blackboard may be made like a painter's easel, as represented in the accompanying cut.

a, Pins for board to rest on. *c*, Hinge or joint to the supporting legs, which are braced by hook *b*, and may be folded up, and the stand put away in a closet. A stand of this kind is convenient to display outline and other maps, reading lessons and other diagrams.

A large movable blackboard may be made as represented in the accompanying cut. An upright frame, strongly braced by cross-pieces (*a*) is inserted into the feet (*b*,) or horizontal supports having castors, on which the whole may be rolled on the floor. Within grooves on the inside of this upright frame is a smaller frame (*c*) hung by a cord which passes over a pulley (*d*,) and is so balanced by weights, concealed in the upright parts, as to admit of being raised or lowered conveniently. Within this inner frame is hung the blackboard on pivots, by which the surface of the board can be inclined from a perpendicular.



A cheaper movable frame, with a blackboard suspended on a pivot, can be made as represented in the lower diagram. The feet, if made as represented in this cut, will be liable to get broken.



Composition for Blackboards.

Lampblack and flour of emery mixed with spirit-varnish.

No more lampblack and flour of emery should be used than are sufficient to give the required black and abrading surface; and the varnish should contain only sufficient gum to hold the ingredients together, and confine the composition to the board. The thinner the mixture, the better.

The lampblack should first be ground with a small quantity of alcohol, or spirit-varnish, to free it from lumps.

The composition should be applied to the smoothly-planed surface of the board, with a common painter's brush. Let it become *thoroughly dry and hard before it is used.* Rub it down with pumice-stone, or a piece of smooth wood covered with the composition.

This composition may also be used on the walls.

Slate Blackboard.

In the class-rooms of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, and all similar institutions, where most of the instruction is given by writing, and drawings on the blackboard, large slates from three feet wide, to four feet long are substituted for the blackboard. These slates cost from $2 to $3, and are superior to any other form of blackboard, and in a series of years prove more economical.

Plaster Blackboard.

As a substitute for the painted board, it is common to paint black a portion of the plastered wall when covered with hard finish, (i. e. plaster of Paris and sand;) or to color it by mixing with the hard finish a sufficient quantity of lamp-black, wet with alcohol, at the time of putting it on. The hard finish, colored in this way, can be put on to an old, as well as to a new surface. Unless the lamp-black is wet with alcohol, or sour beer, it will not mix uniformly with the hard finish, and when dry, the surface, instead of being a uniform black, will present a spotted appearance.

Canvas Blackboard.

Every teacher can provide himself with a portable blackboard made of canvas cloth, 3 feet wide and 6 feet long, covered with three or four coats of black paint, like Winchester's Writing Charts. One side might, like this chart, present the elements of the written characters classified in the order of their simplicity, and guide-marks to enable a child to determine with ease the height, width, and inclination of every letter. Below, on the same side, might be ruled the musical scale, leaving sufficient space to receive such characters as may be required to illustrate lessons in music. The opposite side can be used for the ordinary purposes of a blackboard. When rolled up, the canvas would occupy a space three feet long, and not more than three inches in diameter.

Directions for making Crayons.

A school, or the schools of a town, may be supplied with crayons very cheaply, made after the following directions given by Professor Turner of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

Take 5 pounds of Paris White, 1 pound of Wheat Flour, wet with water, and knead it well, make it so stiff that it will not stick to the table, but not so stiff as to crumble and fall to pieces when it is rolled under the hand.

To *roll* out the crayons to the proper size, two boards are needed, *one*, to roll them *on;* the *other* to roll them *with*. The first should be a smooth pine board, three feet long, and nine inches wide. The other should also be pine, a foot long, and nine inches wide, having nailed on the under side, near each edge, a slip of wood one third of an inch thick, in order to raise it so much above the under board, as, that the crayon, when brought to its proper size, may lie between them without being flattened.

The mass is rolled into a ball, and slices are cut from one side of it about one third of an inch thick; these slices are again cut into strips about four inches long and one third of an inch wide, and rolled separately between these boards until smooth and round.

Near at hand, should be another board 3 feet long and 4 inches wide, across which each crayon, as it is made, should be laid so that the ends may project on each side—the crayons should be laid in close contact and straight. When the board is filled, the ends should be trimmed off so as to make the crayons as long as the width of the board. It is then laid in the sun, if in hot weather, or if in winter, near a stove or fire-place, where the crayons may dry gradually, which will require twelve hours. When thoroughly dry, they are fit for use.

An experienced hand will make 150 in an hour.

We are indebted to Prof. Cook, of Rutgers College, New Jersey, for the following directions for making crayons which he finds, after long trial better for the uses of the black-board, than those made after the direction of Prof. Turner, or than those imported from Europe.

Take five pounds of whiting, four pounds of boiled plaster, and water enough to make the whole into a moderately thin paste. Mix these thoroughly and quickly. This compound will harden in a few minutes, when it may be dried and sawed into crayons.

Bolted Paris white is the best whiting, but the common kind may be used if care is taken to dry and pulverize it. The plaster used by masons, is sufficiently good. It should be fresh boiled. As it is the hardening ingredient in the compound, the crayons may be made more or less hard, by slightly increasing or diminishing the amount mentioned above.

The vessel in which the mixture is made, should be greased before using, to prevent adhesion. Any convenient one may be used, but a square or oblong box would be found most economical. The mixture is best dried at a common temperature; if artificial heat is used, it should not exceed that of boiling water.

Crayons made in this way are better than many of those found in market, and the materials from which they are made are both cheap and common. The square form, produced by sawing, is better for writing than the round.

Plaster Black Wall.

The following directions may be safely followed in making plaster black wall.

In the first place, the scratch coat, made with coarse sand, is spread upon the laths as usual, and the brown coat follows, being left a little rough under the "float." When the brown coat is perfectly dry, the black coat is laid on.

This is prepared of mason's "putty" and ground plaster and beach sand, mixed in the usual proportions for hard finish. The coloring matter is lamp-black, wet with alcohol or whiskey, forming a mixture of the consistency of paste. This is mixed with the other ingredients just as they are about to be spread upon the wall. The quantity of coloring to be used must be sufficient to make a black surface; *the sufficiency being determined by experiment*—no rule can be given. An intelligent mason can very soon try experiments so as to insure success. It is to be remembered that the black surface requires much more working with the smoothing trowel than ordinary white finish. It should be finished by being softly smoothed with a wet brush. When perfectly dry, it is nearly as hard as slate, and almost as durable, if carefully used. Great care should be taken not to put in *too much* lamp-black.

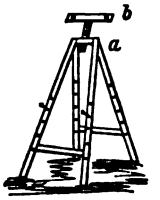
In building a new school-house it would be well to have a belt of this black surface pass entirely around the room, at the proper height. In a common school, when small children are to use it, its lower edge should be about two feet from the floor, extending thence upward from 3 to 5½ feet. At the lower edge there should be a "chalk trough," extending the whole length, made by nailing a thin strip of board to the plank, which bounds the black-board, leaving a trough two inches in width and depth, in which to place the chalk, brushes, pointers, &c.; this will also catch the dust which is wiped from the board. The upper edge should be bounded by a simple moulding.

The best thing for removing the chalk from the board is a brush, made of the size of a shoe-brush, with the wooden handle on the back, the face being covered with a sheep-skin with the wool on. This removes the chalk at a single sweep, without wearing the surface, and without soiling the hand of the operator. This is a great improvement over a dust-cloth or a sponge.

In all cases let the board be kept dry; never allow a pupil to wet the wiper when removing the chalk.

By long use, especially if the surface is ever cleaned with a wet wiper, this kind of black-board becomes too smooth and glossy upon the surface; the chalk passes over it without taking effect, and the light is reflected by it. A very simple wash, applied with a soft brush, will immediately restore it; this wash is made by dissolving one part of glue, to two parts of alum in water, so as to make a very thin solution. It is well to have the wash slightly colored with lamp-black. Care must be taken that this wash do not have too much "body."

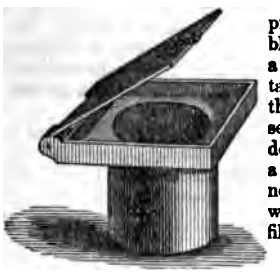
A *map exhibitor*, consisting of a movable cross, (*c*) may be attached to a stand or easel, by being let into a groove, cut in the form of a dove-tail at the back (*a*) of the easel, just above the part where the movable leg is hinged. To suit the varying breadth of maps, the pins or hooks for holding them may be made to slide in a groove in the cross or horizontal part of the exhibitor. The same contrivance, the sliding hook, may be applied to a groove in a board or slip of board, on the side or end of the school-room, at the proper elevation, for the purpose of displaying maps or charts.



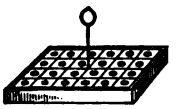
As ink must be provided in all schools, except those of the infant and primary grade, the material and shape of the pot or well to hold the ink, and the mode of inserting the same in the desk, and covering the mouth or top, so as to exclude dust and prevent evaporation, are points of considerable practical importance.

The inside material or lining should be glass, to prevent the ink being injured by corrosion. The conical shape, with a projecting rim slightly inclined towards the opening, will be found to have many advantages—such as facilitating its insertion in the desk, or the tray—the dip of the pen, without touching the side of the pot or well—the catching of any excess of ink thrown or jerked back by the writer, or thrown out by any sudden jar of the desk. Glass ink wells of various patterns can now be obtained at the principal crockery dealers, and are always furnished by the manufacturers of first class desks.*

The ink well should be movable, for convenience of filling and cleansing of sediment, and also for being emptied of ink when not in use, or of being emptied or removed, to avoid freezing in winter.

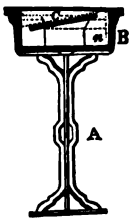


Each desk should be provided with a movable ink well, inserted in a cast iron or other metalic box having a cover, the box being set in, and secured firmly to the desk. The opening in a glass ink well, when not in use, will be protected by the lid, and the well itself can be removed for convenience in filling, cleansing, and emptying.



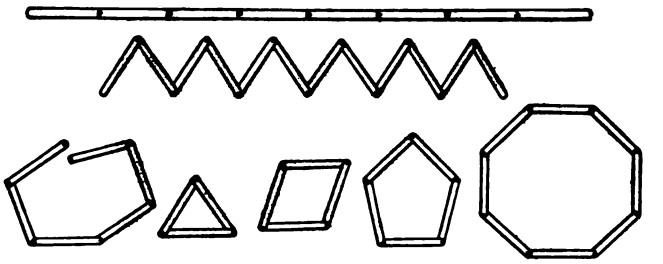
A *Tray for Ink Wells*, made of tin, of annexed construction, will be found very useful to collect the wells when not in use, or when they are removed for cleansing or other purposes.

A *Sponge Box*, for damping sponge without exposing the surface of the water, may be constructed after the following drawing from *Richson's School Building Guide*. To any desk standard (A) attach a box (B) lined with lead. On the inside of the box place a sloping cover, (C) lined on both sides with lead, having at the lower end two rows of perforations, and in the upper a broad slit or opening. Through this slit pass a strip of woolen list or flannel, one end (*n*) of which shall be in the water and the other extend to the perforations in the cover. The water which is taken up by the woolen strip, will filter down the inclined plane, and pass again into the box through the perforations. The surface of the strip will be kept sufficiently wet to damp a sponge without allowing the water to be exposed in the box.

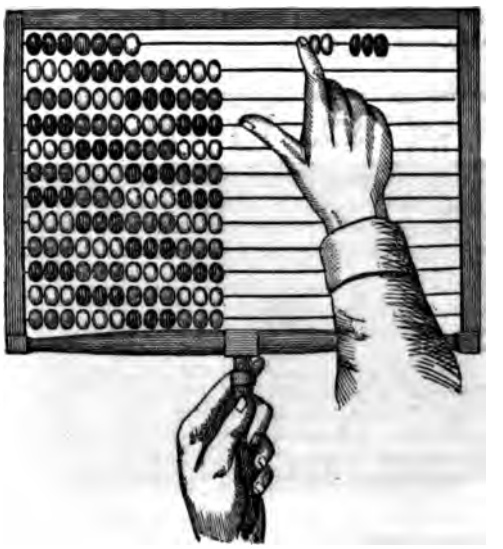


* J. L. Ross, corner of Ivers and Hawkins streets, Boston, has a very neat style of ink well, box, and cover, as illustrated on pages Mr. Ross is also the agent of the Castleton Slate Company, and can furnish slates planed by machinery to a perfectly smooth surface, of any required dimensions, from eight feet long by five wide, and three-fourths of an inch thick, to any smaller size.

The Gonigraph is a small instrument composed of a number of flat rods connected by pivots, which can be put into all possible geometrical figures that consist of straight lines and angles, as triangles, squares, pentagons, hexagons, octagons, &c.

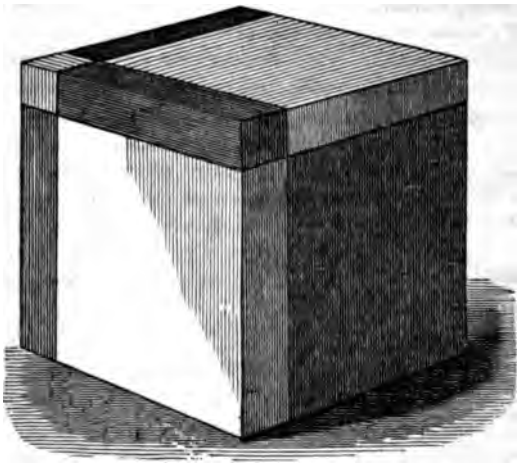


The Arithmeticon, represented in the annexed cut, is a most useful instrument. In an oblong open frame, twelve rows of wooden balls, alternately black and white, and of the size of a nutmeg or small walnut, and twelve in each row, are strung like beads on strong wires. The instrument, when fixed to a stand, is about four feet high, the frame being one-fourth part broader than it is high. It may be made much smaller, as in the cut. When it is used to exercise the children in arithmetic, the teacher or monitor stands behind, and slides the balls along the wires from *his* left to his right, calling out the number he shifts, as, twice two are four, thrice two are six, shifting first four balls, and then two more. As the children are apt to confuse the balls remaining with those shifted, a thin board covers half the surface on the side next the children, as marked by a line down the centre, so that they see only the balls shifted to the open side.



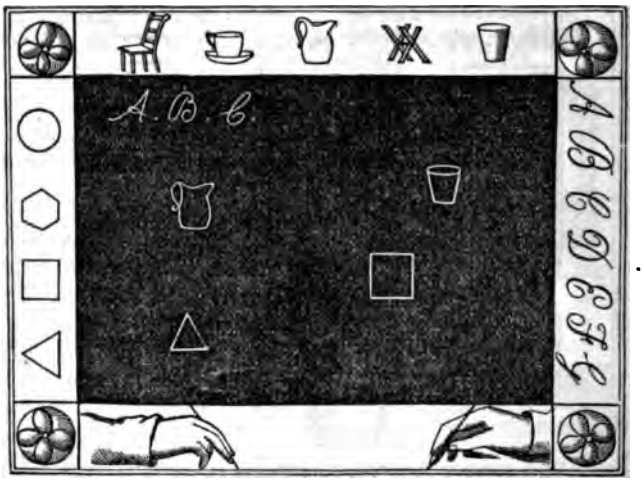
NUMERAL FRAME.

A *Sectional Block*, to illustrate the extraction of the cube root.



BLOCK TO ILLUSTRATE CUBE ROOT.

Accompanying this set is a *Drawing Slate*, designed particularly for young pupils. On the frame are a set of copies for writing and drawing, which are protected from injury in consequence of friction on the desk by cushions made of India rubber inserted in each corner. This slate is equally well adapted for the older pupils, and for all arithmetical operations, and its use is accompanied with less noise than any other form of slate.



DRAWING SLATE.

Apparatus for Warming.

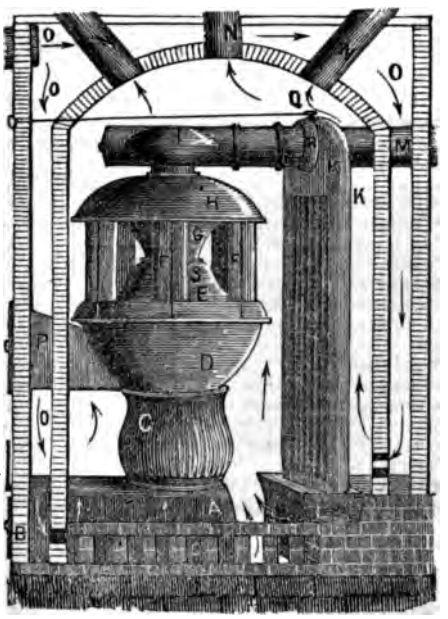
The thorough ventilation, the constant and regular change of the atmosphere of a school-room cannot be secured by simply providing flues or openings, however judiciously constructed and placed, for the escape of the air which has become impure from the process of breathing or other causes. These flues will not work satisfactorily, unless a mode of warming the room is adopted by which a large supply of pure fresh air, properly heated, is flowing in to supply the place of that which is escaping by means of the flues. Among the various modes of warming school-rooms and public halls, which we have seen in full and successful operation, we select a few, in addition to those described in other parts of the work, as worthy of the particular attention of committees and others, who are looking round for a heating apparatus. We shall use the cuts and description by which the patentees and venders have chosen to make their several modes of warming known to the public, without intending to decide on the relative merits of any one mode.

Culver's Hot-Air Furnace.

Patented and Manufactured by Culver & Co., 52 Cliff-street, New York.

Culver's Hot-Air Furnace, as described in the following diagram and explanations, is intended for hard coal, to be set in double walls of brick masonry in cellar or basement, below the rooms to be warmed.

Figure 1.



A. Iron or Brick Ash Pit.
B. Ash Pit door.
C. Pot, or coal Burner, with or without *soap-stone* lining.
D. Fire Chamber.
E. Lower half of Tubular drum.
F. Elliptical tubes.
G. Upper half of Tubular drum.
H. Top of Tubular drum.
I. Cap and smoke pipe.
K. Flat Radiator.
L. Water bason or evaporator.
M. Smoke pipe to chimney.
N. Conductors of Hot Air.
O. Cold air conductor and chamber.
P. Feed door.
Q. Hot-Air chamber.
R. Damper in globe with rod attached.
S. Pendulum valve for cleaning.
→ Shows the direction of the currents of hot or cold air.

Culver & Co. also make, and put up, various sizes of Portable Furnaces, with metallic coverings, suitable for counting rooms, stores, school-rooms and small houses, warming the rooms in which they stand, as well as others in the same building, and they can be removed in summer as conveniently as stoves.

Figure 2.

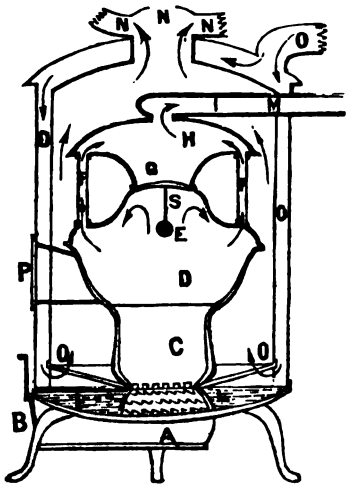


Figure 3.

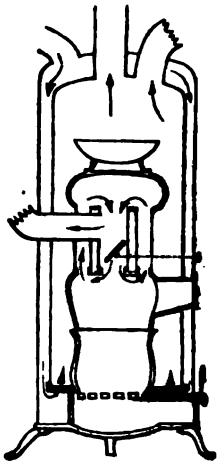


Figure 2 represents a section of large size Portable Furnace or double coverings of sheet iron or zinc. The same letters for reference are used as in Fig. 1.

Figure 3 represents a smaller size Portable Furnace, with two metal coverings and an evaporating dish standing upon the top of the drum.

The peculiarities and advantages of the Furnace are thus set forth:

1. Its compact, convenient and beautiful form.

2. Its great *durability;* being in all its parts of cast iron, set within walls of brick masonry. The *pot* or burner being whole, is found by experience to be more durable than those made of rings or segments, and entirely prevents the admission of gas into the hot-air chamber.

3. The great radiating surfaces of this Furnace exceed those of any other, and being nearly all perpendicular, and so arranged as to afford no chance for the soot, light coal ashes or dust to collect on the plates and prevent the transmission of heat through them, for it must be obvious to every thinking mind, that if a radiating surface is of a zig-zag, or any other form that prevents the descent of dust or soot in a perpendicular line, it will certainly collect dust upon it, and just so much surface thus covered is destroyed for radiating purposes, and in the same proportion will a greater consumption of fuel be required to produce a given result.

These furnaces are so constructed that heat acts actively upon those surfaces within, and produces the immediate and powerful heating of the cold air that is admitted to the outer surface from the atmosphere, through the tubes for that purpose.

4. The great economy in the use of fuel, making and controlling more heat than by any other process of using it.

5. The *joints* of this Furnace are so constructed that the expansion and contraction of the metal cannot open them to admit gas into the hot-air chamber, and it can be cleaned of soot and ashes easily, without the necessity of taking down or breaking a joint; its action is simple, as easily understood and managed as a cylinder stove, and as readily repaired and kept in order, and the manner of "removing the deposits" is entirely novel and most efficient.

6. The constant current of the pure atmosphere into the air chamber, with

the evaporation for tempering it to any degree of humidity, gives a fine healthful ventilation, and a soft summer temperature, suited to the most delicate constitution, and without injury to the building or furniture.

The above described Air Heaters are manufactured and sold, wholesale and retail, by Culver & Co., who, when required, set them in double walls of brick masonry, with cast iron smoke pipe to chimneys, and conductors of hot air, of double cross tin, terminating with registers in the rooms, and secured safely from fire by tin or soap-stone linings.

Figure 4.

Figure 4 represents patterns of scroll work Registers manufactured by Culver & Co., and put in with their furnaces if desired. The registers have valves under the surface, which are easily controlled by means of the star centers. They can be used for ventilating purposes as well as for admitting warm air.

The following directions are given in Culver & Co.'s Circular for the use of their Furnace.

Directions for Use.—In kindling the fire, the valve should be opened by drawing out the Damper Rod R, so as to let the smoke pass directly through smoke pipe M to chimney.

Shavings, pine wood, or charcoal, should be thrown into the pot or coal burner C, and when well ignited, put in about half a hod of coal, and as soon as it also becomes ignited, fill the pot two thirds full of coal, and push the damper R partly in, so as to regulate the draught and heat as may be necessary. The valve may be entirely closed, if need be, so as to retain the heat, making it to pass through the Flat Radiator K.

In moderate weather, when little heat is wanted, put two shovels full of ashes on the centre of the fire, and by regulating the draught, you can make one fire last 24 hours without any alteration; and when you wish to renew the fire, poke out a portion of the ashes, and put on fresh coal, without turning the grate.

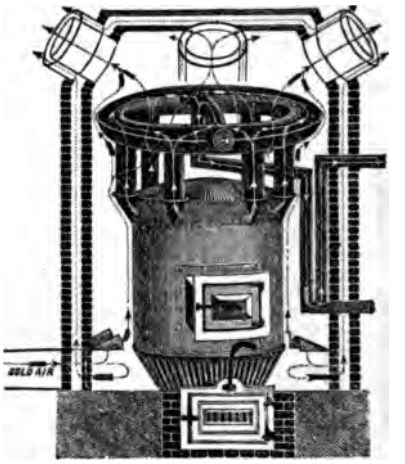
In cold weather, however, to secure a brisk fire, the crank should be turned so as to empty the pot entirely of ashes, and commence a new fire at least once in 24 hours.

When there is too much heat generated, the ash-pit door, B, should be closed entirely, and the damper rod partly drawn out, and if this is not sufficient, the Register in feed-door P may be opened; the heat in the different rooms may be regulated by opening or closing the Registers; all the Registers however should never be closed at the same time, unless the water door is opened to let out the hot air.

The cold-air conductor, O, should always be open when the Furnace is in operation.

Chilson's Air Warming and Ventilating Furnace.

Patented and Manufactured by Gardner Chilson, Boston.



The construction of the *Air-Warming and Ventilating Furnace* was projected by the inventor, to obviate the serious, if not fatal, objections, so generally made, to the use of furnaces for warming apartments, where a fresh, healthful atmospheric air is required. From long experience in putting up furnaces, in which coal was consumed in deep iron pots, and the air which they warmed was made to pass over a large extent of iron surface, made and kept red-hot, he found that the occupants of the rooms thus warmed, complained that the air was not unfrequently filled with the gases of the burning coal, and was at all times dry and stagnant, causing, especially to persons of a nervous temperament, disagreeable sensations to the whole system, such as dizziness of the head, headache, inflammation of the eyes and lungs, dryness of the lips and skin, &c. He found, too, by his own experience and observation in the manufacture and use of furnaces of this kind, that there was an unnecessary consumption of coal, when burnt in deep, straight and narrow pots, causing the coal to melt and run to cinders, and at the same time burning out the pots, and loosening the joints of the furnace, by which the deadly gases escaped into the air-chambers, and hence into the apartments above. These objections, both on the score of health and expense, the inventor claims that he has thoroughly obviated in his *Air-Warming and Ventilating Furnace*, and at the same time preserved all the advantages heretofore realized from this mode of warming buildings. The advantages of the Furnace are—

1. The fire-pot is constructed on the most economical and philosophical principles. It is broad and shallow,—at least twice as broad and one third as deep as the common fire-pot;—is one third smaller at the bottom than at the top, and is lined with fire-brick or soap-stone. Thus the fire-bed is deep enough to keep the coal well ignited with a slow but perfect combustion, while the entire heat from the fuel is given out to act upon the radiating surface alone and the fire-pot can never become red-hot, and does not require renewal. This plan for burning coal is original with the inventor, and has met with universal approbation.

2. The radiating surface is large, and so placed that it receives the immediate and natural action of the heat, and at the same time imparts its heat in the

most direct and uniform manner to the fresh air from without, without suffering waste by absorption from the outer walls of the air-chamber.

3. The air-chamber is large, and the fresh air is admitted and discharged so readily and uniformly that no portion of the radiating surface can ever become overheated; and a delightful summer temperature is maintained in the rooms.

4. The joints of the furnace are so constructed, that, even if the iron-work was liable, like other furnaces, to crack from extreme expansion, by being overheated, (which it is not,) the gas from the burning coal cannot escape into the air-chamber.

5. There are no horizontal inner surfaces on which dust and soot can gather, which do not, at the same time, clean themselves, or admit of being easily cleaned.

6. The grate in the fire-pot is so constructed, that the ashes can be easily detached, and the combustion facilitated.

7. It has stood all the test which sharp rivalry and the most severe *philosophical* practical science could apply to it, and has thus far accomplished all that its inventor promised, and when tried in the same building with other furnaces, has uniformly received the preference.

Dr. Bell, Superintendent of the McLean Asylum for the Insane, who has given this whole subject his particular attention, in his Essay on the *Practical Methods of Ventilating Buildings*, published in the proceedings of the Massachusetts Medical Society for 1848, remarks as follows:

"The character of any variety of the hot-air furnace is measured, in my judgment, by the simplicity of its construction, its non-liability to be brought to an undue degree of heat in any part, and its ready receipt and emission of air. That made by Mr. Gardner Chilson, of Boston, with an air-chamber of brick, and an interspace of two or three feet in width, appears to me to combine all the essentials attainable of this mode of heating air, more fully than any other which has fallen under my observation."

In 1847, the School Committee of Boston sanctioned, by a unanimous vote, the introduction of this furnace into the new school-houses to be erected in that city, on the recommendation of a sub-committee, to which the whole subject of warming and ventilating the school-rooms had been referred. The following is the recommendation referred to.

"Your Committee have made themselves acquainted not only with all the Furnaces which have been manufactured in this place, and its neighborhood, but with all those which have been exhibited here recently. Most of them show much ingenuity of contrivance and excellence of workmanship; but are all, so far as we can judge, inferior, in many respects, to the one invented by Mr. Chilson, a model and plans of which we now exhibit, and recommend as superior to all others.

It is simple in its structure, easily managed, will consume the fuel perfectly, and with a *moderate* fire. It is fitted for wood or coal. The fire-place is broad and shallow, and is lined with soapstone or fire-brick, which not only makes it perfectly safe and durable, but modifies very materially the usual effect of the fire upon the iron pot.

The principal radiating surfaces are wrought iron, of a suitable thickness for service, while at the same time the heat of the smallest fire is communicated immediately to the air-chamber. The mode of setting this Furnace we consider essential; more especially the plan of admitting the air to the furnace at its lowest point, as it then rises naturally into the apartments above. This process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful."

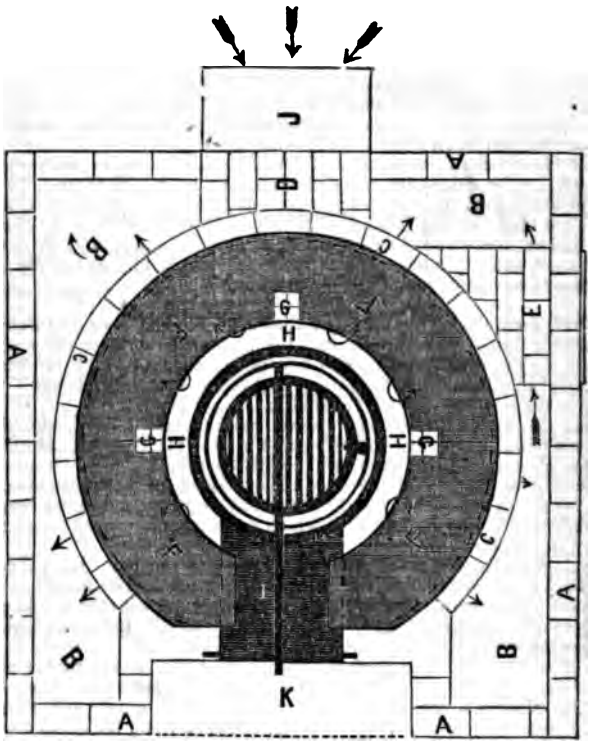
This Ventilating Furnace may be seen in the Mayhew, Dwight, Hancock, Boylston, Bowdoin, and Ingraham school-houses, in Boston; also in several new school-houses in Cambridge, Roxbury, Dorchester, Springfield, in the Blind Asylum and House of Industry, South Boston, and in hundreds of private houses in Boston and its vicinity.

Directions for Setting Chilson's Patent Furnace.

In locating the furnace, choose a situation as equidistant from the registers as possible, so that the pipes may be of nearly equal length, and branch from two or more sides of the furnace.

Secure a proper foundation, by leveling the ground on which the furnace is to rest; and dig down a few inches preparatory to a foundation of brick work, which should cover two inches larger than the outer walls. Should the ground be soft or spongy, fill it with gravel or hard coal ashes; if it prove necessary from the lowness of the cellar to sink the base of the ash-pit below its surface, excavate a trench of corresponding depth, the width of which shall be that of the recess in the walls, and project out about three feet. Commence the walls as shown in the ground plan, figure 1.

Figure 1—Ground Plan.

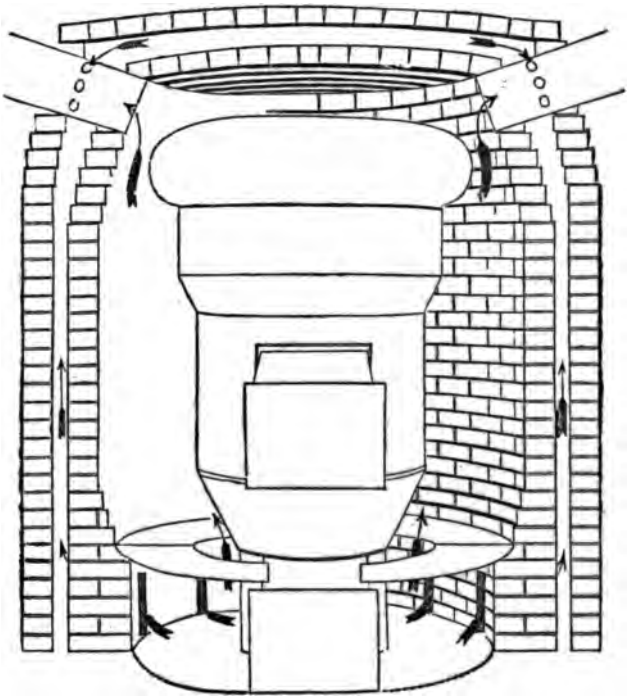


A A A—Outer Walls.
B B B B—Space, between outer and inner Walls, two inches at nearest point.
C C C C—Inner Wall.
D—Brick covering over Cold Air Channel.
E—Brick covering or floor from large Entrance Door.
F F F F F—Iron Trench Plates.
G G G—Three four-inch Brick Piers, support under Trench Plates.
H H—Space between Trench Plates and base of Fire Pot, for ingress of Cold Air. Four and a half inches for Nos. 3 and 4: five inches for No. 5; six inches for No. 6.
I—Cast iron Ash-Pit, or Base to Furnace.
J—Cold Air Channel.
K—Set back, or recess in front Wall; for Nos. 3 and 4, thirty-three inches wide inside, and eight inches deep. For Nos. 5 and 6, thirty-seven inches wide, and twelve inches deep.

The outer wall should be four inches in thickness; that of the inner, eight inches from the base to the trench plates, and four inches above—made in the form of a circle, of such diameter as shall leave a space of two inches between it and the outer wall at the nearest point. Make the recess in the walls front of the door as shown by ground plan, No. 1, and of the dimensions described under same plan. Apertures must be made in the base of the inner wall, as shown in plan No. 1, to give the cold air free ingress into the space between the walls, and carry off the heat radiated from the inside wall into the perforated hot air pipe, and also to prevent the outer wall becoming hot and heating the cellar, causing a waste of heat, damage to vegetables, etc.

After the foundation has reached the height of the furnace base, the cold air channel, which is constructed to conduct the air directly to the space between the inner wall and the cast iron ash-pit, should be covered by means of iron bars overlaid with brick.

Figure 2—Sectional View.



SIZE OF BRICK WORK.

No. 3—5-8 by 5-8, outside. | No. 5—6-6 by 6-6, outside.
" 4—6 feet by 6 feet, outside. | " 6—7 feet by 7 feet, outside.

Outside Walls, four inches thick, for all sizes.
Inside Walls, eight inches thick, all sizes, to Trench Plates, and four inches above.
Eight apertures, eight inches high and two wide. in base of inner wall, for the passage of air between walls.

SIZE OF COLD AIR CHANNELS.

No. 3, Equivalent to 200 square inches, inside
" 4, " " 240 " " "
" 5, " " 325 " " "
" 6, " " 400 " " "

The entrance or man-hole door, should be built in the outer wall, as shown by ground plan, letter E, and a corresponding opening in the inner wall, for the purpose of entrance. On a level with the base, a covering, similar to that of the cold air channel, should be placed between them and the open space between walls, closed with brick, that the heat from the chamber may not escape through the openings.

Construct the inner wall, as shown in the sectional view, No. 2, allowing its line to follow outward, somewhat in the shape of the pot, for four or five courses, gradually receding until within two inches of the outside wall; from this point carry it uprightly to the level of the *dome* plate; then commence to draw in or decrease its size in the form of an arched cone, of such sweep, that when opposite the annular chamber, or ring of the furnace, it shall have a space of four inches between; carry this arched-shaped wall from eight to twelve inches above the furnace, according to its size, then place iron bars across covered with brick; finish by thoroughly and smoothly plastering the walls inside.

The outer walls are to be carried up as represented in the drawing, partially arched, and covered like the others; after the mason work has reached the height from which it is desired to carry the hot air pipes through the walls, place the ends even with the inner wall, and build them into it.

Also build in casings of sheet iron or tin in front of the clearing-out pipe and funnel, through both walls—two inches larger than the pipe, running through them; the ends outside are of course to be stopped with caps, in one of which a hole is made to admit the funnel.

The hot air pipes should be conducted from the *highest point* of the inner wall, as in sectional view, through the arch of the brick work; from which point they should gradually rise to the registers in the floor, always keeping in view the fact that the nearer the pipes can be carried to a perpendicular line from the wall of the furnace to the apartment above, the more readily and economically is heat obtained.

The size of the pipes and registers, and their general disposition, is a matter requiring the best judgment of the mechanic under whose supervision they come, and are determined by the size, position, and distance of the apartment from the furnace, and can not be subject to any fixed rule; as in two rooms of the same dimensions, we often use pipes and registers of different size, owing to their nearness or distance from the furnace in a horizontal line—their height above the basement—the relative position of other pipes, the purposes for which the rooms are to be used, and the amount of heat required, &c., &c. As a general rule, however, in rooms upon the *first* floor, whose dimensions are equal to fifteen feet square, and of ordinary height, use an eight-inch pipe, and registers eight by twelve inches; twenty feet square, ten-inch pipe, registers nine by fourteen inches; twenty-five feet square, twelve-inch pipe, registers ten by sixteen, or twelve by nineteen inches. For halls of *ordinary* size, use register nine by fourteen; ten-inch pipe. Adopt the same scale in rooms of different capacity.

If pipes or hot air tubes are carried into apartments above those of the first floor, they should be two inches smaller in size, than those used in rooms of the same capacity below; so that, should a lower room require a pipe of ten inches in diameter, that above would be eight inches, and still higher, six inches; supposing each room to be of the same size, and directly above the first.

In all hot air pipes that go *above* the first floor, a damper should be placed near the exit from the furnace, and kept closed when not in use, in order to economize the heat that would otherwise fill the pipes when the registers are closed.

It is often expedient to heat two adjoining rooms separated by a partition; in which case, it is our custom to use but one pipe for both; bringing it up to the partition, and placing a T or horizontal pipe across the top, projecting each side, into which registers are to be inserted, of a size corresponding with the rooms.

In double parlors, or rooms connected by sliding or folding doors, we usually place but one register, near their common opening, in case it is intended to use both apartments at once.

In many instances, it is required to heat rooms not in a direct line of communication from the furnace, and in which it seems difficult to introduce pipe without marring the building, or exposing them to view in their passage through other

rooms. In such cases an ingenious mechanic will generally surmount the apparent difficulty by taking advantage of closets, spaces between partitions, chimney pieces, &c., or, if either are impracticable, by carrying the pipes upright through the corner of the room and hiding its unsightly appearance by finishing in front with wood, painting it in representation of a column, or in such a manner as will best suit the style of the apartment. As a *rule*, however, we do not carry pipes above the first floor, except it is designed to heat an apartment for use during the day, as the heat from the hall register will keep the chambers comfortably warmed by leaving the doors opened.

The smoke pipe should be carried directly to the nearest flue, and should it be necessary to carry it horizontally to a considerable distance, surround it by a casing, or pipe of tin, three inches larger in diameter than the smoke pipe itself, and the waste heat that radiates from the smoke pipe, may be used to warm any adjoining apartment, by continuing a hot air pipe into the room and inserting a *funnel register* which we manufacture for that purpose.

The cold air box should be constructed of wood, smooth-planed inside and out. Its opening should be from the north or west side of the building; carry it along the ceiling to the furnace, then drop it perpendicularly down to the base of the cold air channel. This box should contain a damper or slide, which in very cold weather, or when the fire is first kindling, can be *partially* closed; but so arranged that it shall never entirely shut out the air.

In speaking of a wooden cold air box, we do not by any means consider it imperative that this material should be used in its construction, as we often conduct the air in a brick trench covered with flat stones, smoothly plastered and thoroughly cemented, below the level of the ground. This method, when the cellar is dry, has the advantage of permanence, and occupies no room; but it is an additional expense which all are not willing to incur, and is not reckoned in making furnace estimates.

Perforate one or two of the hot air pipes with holes, two inches in diameter, in the part which goes between the walls, for the purpose of carrying off the heat that is collected in the space between.

If the cellar is wet, carry out the base on which the walls are to stand one foot larger than the walls themselves; use hydraulic or Roman cement in its construction; lay the brick two courses, and place a liberal supply of cement between; then, after the furnace walls are erected, carry up a barrier or guard wall from the edge of the brick base, a few inches above the level of the ground, and fill the intervening space between the barriers and the outer furnace wall with cement or clay; adopt also the same precaution around the trench; in fact, form a complete casing of brick, *thoroughly cemented*, all round the base of the furnace, which will prove a sufficient guaranty from water.

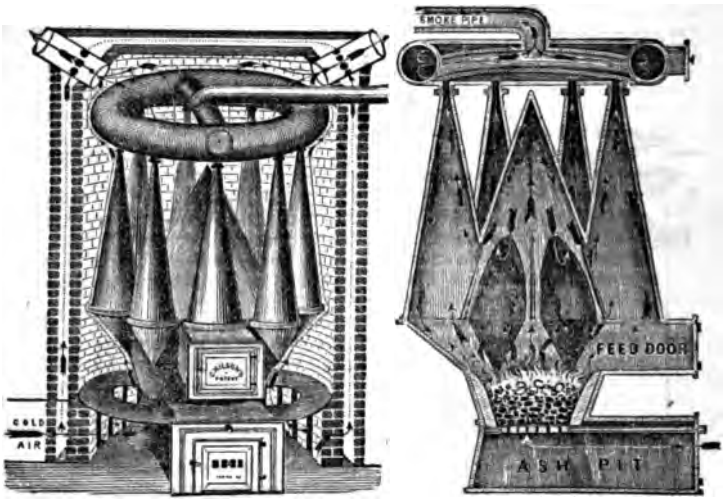
In public halls, or buildings where but a single register is required, carry up the inside wall to a perfect arch and lead the hot air pipe *directly from the top*, and use a hot air grate *without valves*, of the following sizes:—

No. 3	Furnaces—	Grates	22	inches in diameter, and	Hot Air Pipes	18	inches in diameter
" 4	"	"	24	"	"	"	"	"	21	"	"
" 5	"	"	28	"	"	"	"	"	24	"	"
" 6	"	"	32	"	"	"	"	"	27	"	"

It is frequently desirable to have square or parallelogram shaped grates instead of round; when this is the case, use those sizes where capacity in square inches will be equivalent to those given above.

In speaking of grates *without valves*, we wish it especially understood, that in *no* instance where but *a single pipe* is taken from the furnace, should registers *with* valves be used, or *dampers placed in the hot air pipes;* but the amount of heat required, should be regulated by the fire itself; or, if an outlet be deemed expedient, carry it off by means of another pipe, into an adjoining apartment.

CHILSON'S NEW CONE FURNACE.



GARDNER CHILSON of Boston, has just completed and patented in America, England, and France, his new invention—THE "CONE" FURNACE—and asks the special attention of those about erecting or remodeling buildings, as well as dealers in Hot Air, Steam, or Hot Water Furnaces, and all interested in Steam Power, to carefully examine this invention, which entirely *changes* the principle and character of Hot Air Furnaces, *developing another and a new principle*, and obviating all former objections to their use.

This invention as applied to hot air furnaces, is represented by the cut as a cluster of cones, or tapering radiators standing over the fire. The fuel is held in a broad, shallow, pan-shaped fire pot, and lined with soapstone, firebrick, or iron staves. The series of cones are larger at their base, and terminate in small apertures or vents at their tops, where they unite with the annular chamber, which is the only escape for the smoke and gas which passes up through them all at the same time.

It will readily be understood by every intelligent mind that the whole products of combustion in the form of smoke and gas are suspended directly over the fire, confined or compressed into the tapering cones and there continually exposed to the direct action of the rays of heat and light from the fire, (this heat and light is brought to a focus at the top of each cone, not unlike the action of the sun on the sun glass,) causing the smoke and gases to become intensely heated and thoroughly consumed; and the heat to be continually impinging or bearing against the tapering surface of the cones or radiators. By this operation the formerly wasted smoke and gases *lost in chimneys*, is made equally available for heating purposes with the fuel itself.

99 *and* 101 *Blackstone Street, Boston.*

Chilson's Coal Ventilating School Stoves.

The Boston Ventilating Stove, Fig. 1, designed and patented by Dr. Clark, and Chilson's Patent Trio Portable Furnace, Fig. 2, are composed of a cylinder of sheet-iron, inclosing a fire-chamber which is lined with soapstone, or fire-brick, and is so made as to present a large amount of radiating surface. The air to be warmed, is introduced beneath the fire-chamber by a flue from out of doors, and passing up, and around the heated surface, flows directly into the room, or into pipes to be communicated into other departments, as indicated by the arrows in the above drawings These stoves and furnaces are intended to burn coal.

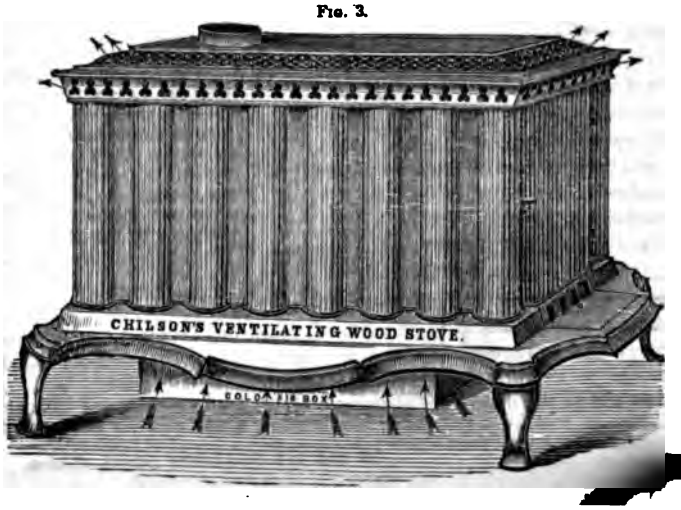
Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Chilson's Wood Ventilating Stove.

Mr. Chilson has also patented a plan of stove for burning wood, Fig. 3, by which the air is introduced by a flue beneath the stove, and is warmed by circulating hrough cast-iron tubes, which constitute the sides and ends of the stove.

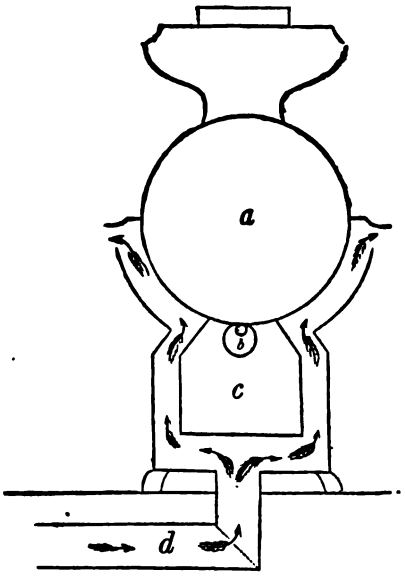
Fig. 3.



Mott's Ventilating School-Stove, for burning wood or coal.

Patented and Manufactured by J. L. Mott, 264 *Water-street, N. Y.*

By this stove the room is warmed by conducting a supply of moderately heated pure air from without, as well as by direct radiation from the upper portion of the stove.



A. Air Chamber, for coal or wood.
B. A revolving grate with a cam process, by which the ashes are easily detached and made to drop into the ash-pit below.
C. Ash-Pit, by which also the draft can be regulated, and the stove made an air-tight.
D. Duct, or flue under the floor, by which fresh air from without is admitted under and around the stove, and circulates in the direction indicated by the arrows.

This, and all stoves designed to promote ventilation by introducing fresh air from without, will work satisfactorily only where a flue properly constructed is provided to carry off the air which has become impure from respiration.

AN ACT DONATING PUBLIC LANDS TO THE SEVERAL STATES AND TERRITORIES WHICH MAY PROVIDE COLLEGES FOR THE BENEFIT OF AGRICULTURE AND THE MECHANIC ARTS.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there be granted to the several States, for the purposes hereinafter mentioned, an amount of public land, to be apportioned to each State, a quantity equal to thirty thousand acres for each senator and representative in Congress to which the States are respectively entitled by the apportionment under the census of eighteen hundred and sixty: *Provided*, That no mineral lands shall be selected or purchased under the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the land aforesaid, after being surveyed, shall be apportioned to the several States in sections or subdivisions of sections, not less than one-quarter of a section; and whenever there are public lands in a State subject to sale at private entry at one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, the quantity to which said State shall be entitled shall be selected from such lands within the limits of such State, and the Secretary of the Interior is hereby directed to issue to each of the States in which there is not the quantity of public lands subject to sale at private entry at one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre to which said State may be entitled under the provisions of this act, land scrip to the amount in acres for the deficiency of its distributive share; said scrip to be sold by said States and the proceeds thereof applied to the uses and purposes prescribed in this act, and for no other use or purpose whatsoever: *Provided*, That in no case shall any State to which land scrip may thus be issued be allowed to locate the same within the limits of any other State, or of any Territory of the United States, but their assignees may thus locate said land scrip upon any of the unappropriated lands of the United States subject to sale at private entry at one dollar and twenty-five cents, or less, per acre: *And provided, further*, That not more than one million acres shall be located by such assignees in any one of the States: *And provided, further*, That no such location shall be made before one year from the passage of this act.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That all the expenses of management, superintendence, and taxes from date of selection of said lands, previous to their sales, and all expenses incurred in the management and disbursement of the moneys which may be received therefrom, shall be paid by the States to which they may belong, out of the treasury of said States, so that the entire proceeds of the sale of said lands shall be applied without any diminution whatever to the purposes hereinafter mentioned.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That all moneys derived from the sale of the lands aforesaid by the States to which the lands are apportioned, and from the sales of land scrip hereinbefore provided for, shall be invested in stocks of the United States, or of the States, or some other safe stocks yielding not less than five per centum upon the par value of said stocks; and that the moneys so invested shall constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished, (except so far as may be provided in section fifth of this act,) and the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated by each State which may take and claim the benefit of this act to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in several pursuits and professions in life.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the grant of land and land scrip hereby authorized shall be made on the following conditions, to which, as well as to the provisions hereinbefore contained, the previous assent of the several States shall be signified by legislative acts:—

First. If any portion of the fund invested, as provided by the foregoing section, or any portion of the interest thereon, shall, by any action or contingency,

be diminished or lost, it shall be replaced by the State to which it belongs, so that the capital of the fund shall remain forever undiminished; and the annual interest shall be regularly applied without diminution to the purposes mentioned in the fourth section of this act, except that a sum not exceeding ten per centum upon the amount received by any State under the provisions of this act may be expended for the purchase of lands for sites or experimental farms, whenever authorized by the respective legislatures of said States.

Second. No portion of said fund, nor the interest thereon, shall be applied, directly or indirectly, under any pretence whatever, to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings.

Third. Any State which may take and claim the benefit of the provisions of this act shall provide, within five years, at least not less than one college, as described in the fourth section of this act, or the grant to such State shall cease; and said State shall be bound to pay the United States the amount received of any lands previously sold, and that the title to purchasers under the State shall be valid.

Fourth. An annual report shall be made regarding the progress of each college, recording any improvements and experiments made, with their cost and results, and such other matters, including State industrial and economical statistics, as may be supposed useful, one copy of which shall be transmitted by mail free, by each, to all the other colleges which may be endowed under the provisions of this act, and also one copy to the Secretary of the Interior.

Fifth. When lands shall be selected from those which have been raised to double the minimum in price, in consequence of railroad grants, they shall be computed to the States at the maximum price, and the number of acres proportionally diminished.

Sixth. No State, while in a condition of rebellion or insurrection against the government of the United States, shall be entitled to the benefit of this act.

Seventh. No State shall be entitled to the benefits of this act unless it shall express its acceptance thereof by its legislature within two years from the date of its approval by the President.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That land scrip issued under the provisions of this act shall not be subject to location until after the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the land officers shall receive the same fees for locating land scrip issued under the provisions of this act as is now allowed for the location of military bounty land warrants under existing laws: *Provided*, their maximum compensation shall not be thereby increased.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the governors of the several States to which scrip shall be issued under this act shall be required to report annually to Congress all sales made of such scrip until the whole shall be disposed of, the amount received for the same and what appropriation has been made of the proceeds.

Approved July 2, 1862.

THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 20.]

No. XLV.—DECEMBER, 1866

CONTENTS.

PAGE.

PORTRAIT OF SENOR F. D. SARMIENTO, the South American Educator, ... 593

I. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY, ... 593

Senor F. D. Sarmiento, with *Portrait*, ... 593

Alonzo Potter, with *Portrait*. Gorham D. Abbott, with *Portrait*, ... 593

Presidents of Ohio State Teachers' Association, ... 601

Portraits of Samuel Galloway,—A. D. Lord,—Joseph Ray,—I. W. Andrews, ... 603

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA,—*continued*, ... 609

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS, ... 609

1. Historical Development, ... 609

III. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE STATE OF CALIFORNIA, ... 625

1. Historical Development, ... 625

2 Revised School Law of 1866, ... 633

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWEDEN, ... 639

V. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, ... 641

English Composition, by Rev. H. N. Day, D. D., ... 641

VI. REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS FOR GIRLS, ... 652

State Industrial School at Lancaster, Mass., ... 652

VII. FOUNDERS AND BENEFACTORS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, ... 657

DEAN COLET, Founder of St. Paul's School, London, ... 657

VIII. THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND, ... 667

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, LONDON, ... 667

1. Foundation and Development, ... 667

2. Condition in 1864, ... 669

IX. PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ITALY, ... 689

1. Different States and their Educational Condition in 1850, ... 689

X. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE, ... 700

Model Primary School House in Boston, with Illustrations, ... 701

Prescott Grammar School House, with Illustrations, ... 711

School Furniture, ... 720

Town's Plan of Octagonal School House, with Illustrations, ... 721

XI. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, ... 721

NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 721

Biographical Sketches, with *Portrait* of I. Peckham, ... 737

IOWA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 745

Biographical Sketches, with *Portrait* of D. F. Wells and O. Faville, ... 749

NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 751

Biographical Sketches, with *Portrait* of H. E. Sawyer, ... 761

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 765

Biographical Sketches, ... 775

MAINE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 777

Biographical Sketches, with *Portrait* of E. P. Weston, ... 783

CALIFORNIA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 785

Biographical Sketches, with *Portrait* of John Swett, ... 790

INDEX to Volume XVI, ... 791

THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 17.]

No. XLII.—MARCH, 1866.

CONTENTS.

PAGE.

PORTRAIT OF RT. REV. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., LL. D., ... 1

I. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE, ... 5

1. Elementary Schools, ... 8

Historical Development from 1621 to 1864, ... 8

Present System—Organization—Internal Economy, ... 22

II. THE NATURE AND VALUE OF EDUCATION, ... 33

A Prize Essay on (1) Physical, (2.) Intellectual, (3.) Moral Education, ... 33

III. THE DIGNITY OF THE SCHOOLMASTER'S WORK, ... 65

A paper designed for the Argentine Confederation by Senor D. F. Sarmiento, ... 65

IV. DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, ... 75

LABORS OF REV. SAMUEL READ HALL FROM 1833 TO 1840, ... 75

LABORS OF JAMES G. CARTER IN BEHALF OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS, 77

Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers—February, 1825, ... 77

Memorial to the Legislature of Massachusetts, by James G. Carter, 1826, ... 86

Report by W. B. Calhoun of Select Committee of Legislature, on Memorial, 1827, ... 88

INFLUENCE OF THE PRUSSIAN SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, ... 89

Report of Alexander H. Everett, and Statements by Dr. Julius, in 1836, ... 89

MEMORIAL OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION IN 1837, ... 93

MUNIFICENT OFFER OF EDMUND DWIGHT—LEGISLATION OF MASS., 1838 100

V. THE ORIGINAL FREE OR TOWN SCHOOL OF NEW ENGLAND 105

Characteristics found in the first Town School of Dorchester, ... 105

VI. GLIMPSES OF THE MEANS AND CONDITION OF AMERICAN EDUCATION PRIOR TO 1800, 109

1. North Carolina—Autobiography of Prof. Charles Caldwell, M. D., ... 109

2. South Carolina—Reported Conversation of General Marion on Free Schools, ... 117

3. Georgia—Barring out the Schoolmaster, a School Scene, ... 121

VII. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE. Described by those who went to them. *Third Article*, ...126

Jeremiah Day—Willard Hall—A. Bronson Alcott—Henry Ward Beecher, ... 135

VIII. FEMALE EDUCATION AS IT WAS, ... 137

IX. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY, ... 141

X. HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, ... 149

Conventions and Associations in Illinois, ... 149

ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, ... 156

Biographical Sketches of the Presidents, ... 165

Portraits of Newton Bateman—Richard Edwards—J. V. N. Standish, ... 165

Ladies Education Society at Jacksonville, ... 171

VIRGINIA EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS, ... 173

XI. NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION, ... 177

Report to Convention of State Superintendents—February, 1865, ... 177

XII. ADVICE ON STUDIES AND CONDUCT—BY MEN EMINENT IN LETTERS AND AFFAIRS, .. 187

Letter of Lord Brougham—on the Training of a Public Speaker, ... 187

Letter of Thomas Carlyle—on Reading and Working, ... 191

Engraved by [illegible]

D. F. Sarmiento

I. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

SENOR D. F. SARMIENTO.

THE following sketch of an illustrious citizen of the Argentine Republic, Colonel DON DOMINGO FAUSTINO SARMIENTO, has been condensed from a biography now in preparation, which the richness of the materials has unexpectedly swelled from a brief memoir originally prepared for this Journal. But the record has its natural place here, as Colonel Sarmiento takes rank with the first educational men of the world, his great work having been performed in the face of obstacles which no other known educationist has had to encounter. Its scene was in a country that had for ages been demoralized by the vices of the Spanish colonial system, and was begun before the country was freed from the frightful tyrannies that held the most prominent parts of it in subjection after the Spanish yoke had been thrown off, and it had won its independence and abolished chattel slavery.

Col. Sarmiento was born in 1811, in the Argentine Republic, in the province of San Juan, on the eastern slope of the Andes. He was descended from two ancient families who had become impoverished in circumstances, one of which had been distinguished for more than a century for literary ability, which the subject of our notice inherited in a remarkable degree. His precocious childhood was fostered at home, and also in a school directed by a remarkable teacher, who knew how to give his pupils full possession of their faculties, because he cultivated their thinking powers. He remained in this school for nine years of his childhood, and the rest of his education was almost wholly self-acquired, though he enjoyed the advantage of the assistance and conversation of two of his relatives, one a Dominican friar, and the other an active participant in the war of Independence. This clerical uncle's assistance in the study of latin, and his conversations with his nephew, in a solitary residence in the pastoral region of San Luis, where the boy of fifteen opened a school of eight pupils of twenty years of age, who had

never before had the opportunity to learn to read, although belonging to wealthy families, was a fine advantage. At sixteen he made reading his profession. The French, English, Italian and Portuguese languages, gave him a wide range. History was his favorite reading.

In 1829, when 18 years of age, he took up arms against Quiroga and Rosas. He went to Chili in 1831, took lodgings in the house of his relative, Don Domingo Sarmiento, Governor of the Department of Putaendo, and from there went out to the village of Los Andes, where he directed a municipal school, the first ever established in that village of 20,000 inhabitants. His next enterprise was the opening of a store in Pocuro, with a little capital furnished by his friends. In 1833, he walked to Valparaiso, and obtained a situation as a merchant's clerk, earning an ounce a month, most of which he spent in books. He afterwards went to Copiapo as superintendent of mines, still employing every leisure moment in reading.

In 1836, he returned to his native city of San Juan, and in company with some other able young men, founded a College for young ladies in 1838. It only lasted two years, but gave valuable results, as evidenced by the superiority of the young ladies who attended it, now the best cultivated matrons of that cultivated city. In 1839, in connection with the same young men who assisted him in the school, he founded *La Zonda*, a periodical which was afterwards suspended by order of Governor Benavides, who put S. Sarmiento in prison, although the only topics treated were morals, public education, the cultivation of the mulberry tree, mines, literature, &c. In November, 1841, still persecuted by Benavides, he went again to Chili, happily for that country, and entered the College of the Dr. Zapata, as teacher, and after took in charge the Lyceum of Santiago, in conjunction with Don Vicente Fidel Lopez. He also established *El Progreso*, a daily Journal, devoted to public interests and the elevation of society. In 1842, he again directed his steps to the Argentine Republic, to join Gen. La Madrid at Cordova, but in his passage over the mountains met the defeated army retreating to Chili. He was instrumental in saving the lives of nearly all the fugitives, among whom were young volunteers from the first families of Buenos Ayres and the northern provinces of the Argentine Republic.

He wished at that time to visit Europe on an educational mission, prior to the establishment of a Normal School, but Don Manuel Montt, then Minister of Chili, advised him to establish the school first, which he did, and directed it for three years in the most able

manner. He was then commissioned by the Government to go to Europe and America to study the subject. The Normal School which he founded in Chili, was the first institution of the kind in America, either North or South. One of his biographers has described with much minuteness the mode in which he taught every branch, and it is very striking to observe that, unaided and alone, he had thought out and practised all the most improved methods known at present in our most advanced schools. His moral influence was of the highest kind. The office of Schoolmaster was a very humble one in S. America, until he exalted it by his example and his eloquent word for it. He treated his pupils with great respect and consideration, and inspired them with the utmost confidence and enthusiasm for himself. They carried on the work of teaching during his absence, and after his return he was enabled to put them into valuable offices, such as Visitors of Schools, Assistants in Teachers' Institutes, &c. During his absence, he visited France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Holland, England, Canada and the United States. Every educational establishment was thrown open to his inspection in those parts of Europe which he visited, and he became acquainted with the most distinguished men. One of his most valuable and interesting works, "Civilization and Barbarism," was translated into French after he visited France, and reviewed in the *Revue des deux Mondes*, very ably, which added much éclat to his visit.

In England he met with Mr. Horace Mann's Seventh Report, the account of his own visitation of European schools, and on coming to this country sought his acquaintance and made himself conversant with the Common School System of Education. He studied the documents upon the subject, and conferred closely with Mr. Mann upon the workings of the system, which enabled him on his return to Chili to introduce it there. The government published his work upon Popular Education, embodying the results of his observations. No such work had ever appeared in the Spanish language, and its merits are surpassed in no language. After a devotion of nearly twenty years of his life to education, public and private, in Chili, during which time Don Manuel Montt became President of that Republic, and a still more efficient aid to Mr. Sarmiento from that circumstance, he returned to the Argentine Republic. He expresses in his writings many obligations to Don Manuel Montt, but some of his biographers assert that Don Manuel Montt was partly indebted to Senor Sarmiento's brilliant pen for that supreme position, and it is well known that Senor S. was the spring of all movements *for the*

education of the people, an idea which never had dawned upon a Chilian mind, certainly not upon the government, until Senor Sarmiento presented it. Indeed, when it was first suggested by him that the laborers, the peons, should be educated, they exclaimed in dismay, "What! teach the laboring class to read! what confusion and demoralization would ensue!" Nothing daunted, Senor Sarmiento persevered. When he began, only 9,000 children of any class were educated in all classes of schools, private, fiscal, municipal, conventual, and those children of the upper classes, in a population of a million and a half. When he left it, the number had increased to 27,000, and many schools were erected in the departments. Yet Senor Sarmiento's name was never mentioned in any public decree, or even in connection with instruments which he had himself drawn up. Every thing was done in the name of the Government.

In 1851, he left Chili for a time to take up arms against Rosas, under General Urquiza, but tyranny still remained triumphant, and he returned to Chili. In addition to his educational labors, he had distinguished himself by his writings in Chili. For ten years he had converted the press of Chili into a battering ram against Rosas, pouring out a deluge of writings against his government and evil deeds. Many years after he had the satisfaction of writing upon the tyrant's own table and with the tyrant's own pen, the account of the battle of Casero which overthrew him, and in which Col. Sarmiento was an actor. It was not until 1855 that he finally left Chili for Buenos Ayres. He left there the institution of popular libraries, in which he had expended much of his own means, while all his emoluments in the country had been of the most meagre description. He had published his first *Didactic work upon methods of instruction; the Analysis of the methods of reading known and practised in Chili; the Manual of Ancient and Modern History*, (a translation); *Modern Discoveries*, (do.); *Civilization and Barbarism; Popular Education; Travels in Europe, America and Africa;* he had founded and carried on almost unaided the *Monitor of Schools*, a periodical of thirty-four pages, abounding in valuable treatises upon every subject of popular interest, and written an infinity of pamphlets for the instruction of the teachers and youth of Chili. The first Spelling book in which the correct sounds of the letters were given was also of his writing. He had banished from the schools such books as *The Temporal and the Eternal, and The Pains of Hell*, fit only to mislead the minds of youth and imbue them with the most absurd and extravagant ideas, and had replaced them

with *The Life of Jesus Christ*, *Morality in Deed and Life*, *The Conscience of a Child*, *The Life of Franklin*, *and The Why, or the Science of Things*. He had presented to the University of Chili, the first paper upon American Orthography that ever saw the light in Spanish America. He had established *La Cronica* and *Sad America*, devoted to immigration, liberty and government, and had contributed largely to *El Mercurio*, *Civilization*, and many other periodicals, European as well as American. In that twenty years no tyrant ever rose in Chili. He had established the first newspaper in Santiago, the residence of cultivated Chilians. Every public interest had responded to his touch. The press teemed with articles that were too marked to be mistaken for those of any other writer. The appropriations for roads had increased from $20,000 per year to $300,000, and Chili became unique for the beauty, multiplicity and preservation of its Macadamized roads. The Model Farm, where trees and plants of other countries were introduced, the Nautical School, the penitentiaries, the diligencies, immigration, the paving of streets, were all promoted with such vigor and pertinacity as to propitiate public opinion and conquer all opposition. The youth of the Republic were stimulated to the greatest exertions for their own improvement, and through his efforts even poetry left its old tracks and became adapted to present wants and sentiments.

But we must hasten to Buenos Ayres with Senor Sarmiento. In 1856 he petitioned the Government for leave to organize a Department of Schools. After conquering great opposition he succeeded, and was made Chief of the Department. He built the splendid Model School of Buenos Ayres. The citizens were stimulated to do the same in another parish. He opened fine schools and induced the citizens to become visitors and inspectors. He was made Senator and Minister of State, and in 1860 the Legislature of Buenos Ayres, by his advice, appropriated $1,000,000 for schools. A line of school houses of the noblest construction stretches across the Pampas.

The memoir above mentioned describes minutely the public works he carried through by his zeal and influence; the redeeming of the isles of the Parana from the waters, making them sources of immense riches, the surveying and laying out the lands of Chivilcoi, &c., &c. In 1862 he returned to his native province of San Juan, where he was elected Governor. At that time, in 1863, one of the peasant chieftains invaded San Juan and five other neighboring provinces, and Col. Sarmiento, who had served ably in the wars of the Republic, rallied the forces of the province and annihilated Chacho and his bands at

the gates of the city. In 1862 he had laid the corner stone of a splendid educational edifice, which was not completed until after his arrival in this country, but which was finished and opened under the inspection of his friend Don Camilo Rojo, the present governor of San Juan, who in a short, interesting letter, has described the festival of its inauguration.* This was but one item in the efforts Col. Sarmiento made for education in San Juan, and he was also successful in opening the mines in that province, which promise great riches, and are already in successful operation.

In 1865 he came to this country as Minister Plenipotentiary, which office he also fills to Chili and Peru, which he visited in 1864.

Col. Sarmiento has been largely influential in promoting the political interests of his country. Indeed, it is very plain that it contains no man who understands our legislation so well. A careful perusal of his principal works shows the wide range of his knowledge and experience. No question incident to the growth or improvement of nations has failed to receive his closest attention and study.

In this country he occupies a great portion of his time on the subject of education. He is attracted by every Convention, meeting of School Superintendents, Institutes of Instruction, every Agricultural Fair, and Industrial Exhibition, and devotes much time in representing to his countrymen, by means of his brilliant pen, the advantages of education in every possible form which it can assume.

He has written and sent home a large edition of a Life of Lincoln, and a large volume called the *Schools the Basis of the Prosperity of the Republic*, which has found great acceptance there and in Europe. Laboulaye has commented upon it with much warmth in these words: "I am entirely of your opinion. The future of civilization is in the U. States. It is Schools which will regenerate the world, and a day will come in which it will be felt that Horace Mann is truly a great man, and has been more useful to humanity than all the Cæsars."

Senor Sarmiento is a corporator of the University of Chili, and member of various literary societies, the Historical Institute of France, the Free Trade Association of Hamburg, the Agricultural Society of Berlin, the Historical Society of R. I., the Literary Academy of Madrid, &c., &c.

* "More than 3,000 spectators assembled to witness the inaugurating ceremonies—the State and City officials, teachers, parents, and children, crowded the halls and class-rooms, and yard, and neighboring houses, while the Priest performed the ceremony of benediction. Addresses appropriate to the occasion were delivered, and hymns and songs were sung by the children; and the only cause of regret was the absence of the man who had originated the enterprise, which in its inception was deemed Utopian. More than thirty pay schools are now in operation in this city, with 2,000 pupils."

ALONZO POTTER, D. D., LL. D.

RT. REV. ALONZO POTTER, D. D., the first President of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, was born of parents who were of Rhode Island, in Beekman, (now La Grange,) in Duchess County, New York, July 10th 1800, and died in San Francisco, California, July 4th, 1865. After attending the common school of his town till he was fourteen years old, he enjoyed the advantages of a classical and mathematical training for college, in the academy at Poughkeepsie, then under the charge of Daniel S. Barnes, who was afterward associated with Dr. Griscom in the Public High School of the City of New York. He graduated in 1818, at Union College, the first scholar in a class which included many men who afterward became eminent.

He commenced teaching immediately after graduating, in Philadelphia, and in the following year was called to Union College as tutor, where he became, in 1321, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, which Chair he filled till 1826, when he became Rector of St. Paul's Church, in Boston, but returned to Schenectady in 1831, on the urgent solicitation of his father-in-law, Dr. Nott, to become Vice President and Professor of Moral Philosophy in Union College, which positions he filled till 1845, when he was elected Bishop of the Diocese of Pennsylvania. As a college officer and teacher, he has had no superior for thorough instruction, and the power of cultivating lofty aspirations and a manly character in his pupils; and while doing his whole duty as a college officer and teacher, and as Rector and Bishop, no man in his day and place did more to promote the cause of popular education and religious philanthropy. He was the adviser of James Wadsworth of Geneva, in his voluntary labors, and pecuniary contributions, and of the School Department at Albany in its official action, and of the friends of popular education, in all efforts to establish School Libraries, Educational Periodicals, County Supervision, State Normal Schools, and to elevate and inform public sentiment on the whole subject of Educational Improvement. His wise counsel and earnest appeals were sure to be heard in all County, State, and National School Conventions, up to the day that his own nervous system broke down beneath his manifold labors. The Hospital, the Divinity School, the Literary and Lecture Associations of Philadelphia, and every department of education in Pennsylvania felt the impulse of his earnest spirit. The School for Imbeciles at Media was a charity of his suggestion and efforts.

On the outbreak of the rebellion, Bishop Potter took a decided stand on the side of the National Government, was an active member of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, and an earnest friend of Emancipation—devoting much time to the hospitals of invalid and wounded soldiers, until his vital powers were exhausted, when he took a voyage to the Pacific, but died before he could be taken to the land.

Bishop Potter was the author of "The Principles of Science applied to the Domestic and Mechanic Arts," "Political Economy, its Objects, Uses and Principles," and a "Hand Book for Readers and Students"—all published in Harpers' District School Library, which was got up under his supervision. "The School," the first part of the "School and Schoolmaster," was prepared by him at the request of Mr. Wadsworth, and had a circulation of over 60,000 copies. He received the degree of D. D. from Harvard College, and of LL. D. from Union College.

GORHAM D. ABBOTT, LL. D.

REV. GORHAM D. ABBOTT, LL. D., born in Brunswick Me, in 1807, was the third of five sons of Jacob Abbott, Esq.,—Jacob, John S. C., Gorham D., Charles E., and Samuel P.,—all of whom received a regular collegiate and theological education, at Bowdoin College, and at Andover Theological Seminary;—and all have devoted much of their lives to the children and youth of our country.

Impaired health at the close of his theological course, led Mr. Abbott to make a tour, mainly equestrian, through most of the United States, and, afterward, many voyages to Europe. Examinations of the state of educational institutions, and of the press in both continents, turned his attention more particularly to the vast influence of these great agencies upon society.

A compilation of extensive tabular and statistical views respecting the educational institutions, and the issues of the press, in all forms,—books, magazines, journals, newspapers, popular songs, and flying sheets, in Great Britain, France, Germany, and the United States, induced a number of gentlemen to undertake a combined effort to improve the character and extend the influence of these agencies in our country.

In 1837 Mr. Abbott accepted a call to take charge of the Presbyterian Church at New Rochelle, New York, and resided there, in this relation till 1841, devoting most of his time during the week to educational labors in New York.

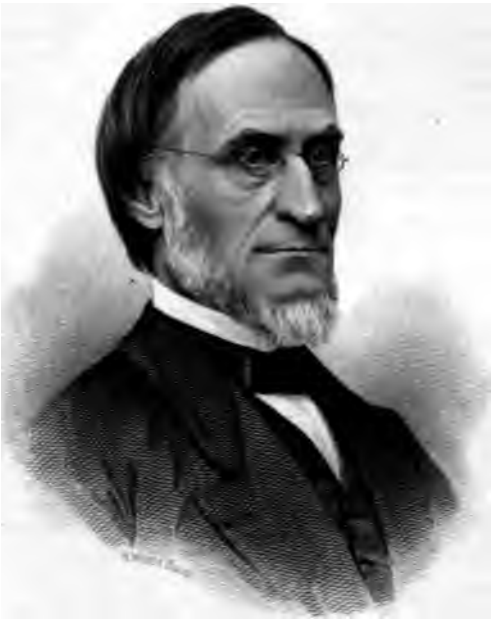
In 1838 he undertook the organization of "The American Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge." Pursuing this object he traveled 15,000 miles, and arranged and conducted more than one hundred public meetings in its behalf, in most of the cities and large towns in the Atlantic States.

In 1843, he commenced, in connection with his brother, the establishment of the "Abbott Collegiate Institute for Young Ladies," in Colonnade Row, La Fayette Place, in the hope of calling attention to a higher order of education for daughters in our country, and of elevating its general character. The prosperity of these efforts, and the necessary enlargement of his plans, led successively to other locations, and finally to the erection of "THE SPINGLER INSTITUTE," on Union Square, where for more than twelve years Mr. Abbott conducted one of the most distinguished institutions for the education of daughters, in our country.

At the expiration of the lease of this edifice, he secured the ample grounds and commodious mansion on the Fifth Avenue, corner of 34th Street, known as the "Townsend Estate," as the foundation of a college for the education of woman. The proposed additions to this building, with the enlarged complement of appointments and belongings,—in lecture room, library, cabinet, painting gallery, observatory and philosophical apparatus, would have made it one of the most complete establishments, for the purpose, in the world.

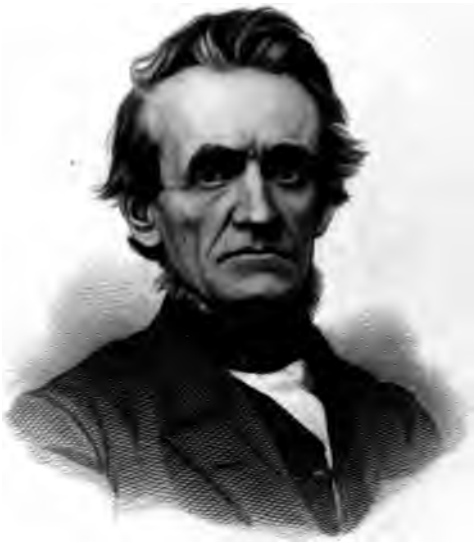
But the disturbances of the war, and other attending circumstances, disappointed Mr. Abbott's plans, and swept away the principal fruits of his five and twenty years of effort to establish an institution for daughters worthy of the metropolis of our country; but he continued his school under the original name, in Park Avenue, until the fall of 1866, when he concluded to retire for a season from the teacher's work.

GORHAM D. ABBOTT, LL. D.



Gorham D. Abbot

FRANKLIN INSTITUTE



Saml Galloway

PRESIDENTS OF THE OHIO STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.*

SAMUEL GALLOWAY.

SAMUEL GALLOWAY, the first President of the Ohio Teachers' Association, was born of Scotch-Irish parentage, in Gettysburg, Adams County, Penn., in 1811, where he lived until the death of his father in 1819, when he removed to Ohio, and continued his intellectual training at Miami University, graduating with its highest honors in 1833.

For a year, after graduating, he taught a classical school at Hamilton, and in 1835 succeeded Rev. William H. McGuffey, D. D., in the professorship of the Ancient Languages in Miami University at Oxford, but in consequence of ill health resigned at the end of a year to engage in farm work. With renovated strength he resumed teaching, first at Springfield, Ohio, and in 1839–40 as Professor of Ancient Languages in South Hanover College, Indiana, but his health again failing, he returned to Ohio, commenced the study of law at Hillsborough, was admitted to the bar in 1842, and in 1843 removed to Chilicothe, was elected Secretary of State in 1844, when he removed to Columbus, where he has since resided. He declined a reëlection as Secretary of State in 1851, resumed the practice of the law, took, as he had always done, an active part in politics, for which his genius for oratory fitted him, and was elected to Congress in 1854, and participated prominently in the political conflicts arising out of the Kansas difficulties, both in Congress and in all the ultimate issues.

As Secretary of State, Mr. Galloway was ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, and in that capacity his personal efforts, and his annual reports to the Legislature, inaugurated a new era in the history of public instruction in Ohio, and entitle him to a high place among the educational benefactors of the State. His eloquent advocacy of the claims of teaching to much more honorable and lucrative estimation than it had received, of a higher standard of qualification for its duties, of Teachers' Institutes and Associations, of county superintendency, of an independent State superintendency, of school libraries, and generally of the inestimable value of education both to the public and to individuals, arrested the attention of public men, and prepared the way for the associated and legislative action which followed. Of the State Teachers' Association, which was formed in December, 1847, he was elected the first President, and has often responded to invitations to address educational conventions and associations, and take part in all philanthropic movements, although his special line of study and activity has been in the sphere of politics and law. In his own chosen field, before a jury, the bench, or the people, Ohio has among her

* A sketch of the life of A. J. Rickoff, sixth President of the Ohio Association, will be found in connection with the National Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1858.

living orators not one more versatile, effective, or popular. Gifted with humor, pathos, imagination, and action, he will exhibit in a single speech, on a single subject, almost every style of oratory, and carry his hearers from grave to gay, from the irresistibly comic to the terrible earnest, in rapid succession, reminding the hearers of Choate and Clay and Corwin in their happiest efforts.

ISAAC SAMS.

ISAAC SAMS was born in England, in 1788. He served four years as attaché on the staff of Admiral Pickmore, in the Baltic and the Mediterranean Seas, from whence he was transferred to the office of Sir John Colpoys, K. B., Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital, where he served six years as Corresponding Clerk. But in 1818, having become fascinated by Morris Birkbeck's account of the United States, he came over to Maryland and established a boarding-school, which he conducted for seventeen years, with eminent success.

In 1835 he removed to Brooklyn, New York, in order to extend the field of his exertions. With commendatory letters from his friends in Maryland and Pennsylvania, to such gentlemen as Chancellor Kent, Washington Irving, Gardiner G. Howland, Robert B. Minturn, and his school was filled the first day. But his health utterly failing, he was compelled, in a short time, to retire from the hopeful prospect before him to an estate which he had purchased near Hillsborough, in Ohio.

After ten years out-door exercise, in clearing the forest and farming the land, his health being restored, he was called to conduct the Hillsborough Academy, which he did for six years. He then devoted his attention to the establishing of a Union School in the town of Hillsborough, which, after serious opposition, he was happy enough to see carried, by a great majority of the people. In this institution he was for one year Professor of Mathematics, and for three years Superintendent.

He was appointed in 1838 to the Board of School Examiners of Highland County, and by means of a steady and progressive system of examinations inaugurated by him, he has helped to make the teachers of Highland among the best of the State. In 1851 he was elected President of the State Association of Teachers.

JOHN HANCOCK.

JOHN HANCOCK was born in Clermont county, Ohio, February 18, 1825. He had no educational advantages except such as were extended by the common country schools of that section, but, through the facilities of a small neighborhood library, he early imbibed a taste for reading, which, as in the case of hundreds of the leading men of this country, faithfully and thoroughly cultivated, has well supplied the place of the more formal training of the collegiate course. There are very few men in any quarter of the country or in any profession whose reading has been more extensive or directed in better channels than that of the subject of this sketch.

Mr. Hancock commenced his career as a teacher at the age of nineteen, in his own neighborhood, and after teaching some four or five years in country and village schools, he went to the city of Cincinnati through the influence of Dr. Joseph Ray, who had, in the Institutes of his county, observed his accurate attainments and excellent views of instruction and discipline. For little more than a year he served as first assistant in the Sixth District School, and then

became principal on the retirement of Mr. Rickoff. At the end of the second year he was called to the principalship of the First Intermediate or Grammar School, made up of the highest classes of the district schools in the western part of the city. This school was the first of its kind established in Cincinnati, and

became principal on the retirement of Mr. Rickoff. At the end of the second year he was called to the principalship of the First Intermediate or Grammar School, made up of the highest classes of the district schools in the western part of the city. This school was the first of its kind established in Cincinnati, and was then looked upon as an experiment. It is greatly owing to the skill, ability, and untiring perseverance of Mr. Hancock, that the experiment became a success, and was permanently ingrafted upon the system. After nearly ten years of assiduous labor in this school, Mr. Hancock resigned his position, to take one which was offered to him in Mr. Richard Nelson's Commercial College, at a salary very much larger than was paid him in the public schools.

Mr. Hancock became a member of the Ohio State Teachers' Association in 1851, and the same year he was elected Secretary. In 1856–7 he served with distinguished ability as chairman of the Executive Committee. In 1858 he was chosen as Vice President, and in 1859 was elected to the presidency of the Association. He has, from the first year of his membership in the Association, been a very frequent contributor to the Ohio Journal of Education, of which he was an associate editor for some four or five years. In 1860 he was editor of the "*Journal of Progress*," an educational paper established by Mr. Elias Longley, from which his articles were extensively copied by other journals of the same class, throughout the Union. In 1865 he became principal editor of the "*News and Educator*," published by Mr. Nelson.

JOSEPH RAY, M. D.

JOSEPH RAY was born in Ohio County, Va., November 25th, 1807. He was remarkable for his studious habits from early boyhood, and at sixteen years of age commenced teaching to procure the means of acquiring a better education, pursuing his studies at the same time under great difficulties and discouragements. He first entered Washington College, Penn., and afterward, with an interval of teaching, the Ohio University at Athens, Ohio. Without completing a collegiate course he commenced, in 1827, the study of medicine, attended lectures at the Ohio Medical College at Cincinnati, and having taken his degree in 1831, married and commenced practice in the Commercial Hospital as surgeon. In October of the same year he became teacher in the preparatory department of Woodward College, in 1834 was promoted to the position of professor of mathematics, and in 1851, when the college became merged in the Woodward High School, was elected its President. He presided over the school with signal success till his decease in April, 1857.

For the last five or six years of his life Dr. Ray was also President of the Board of Directors of the House of Refuge, to which, as to every thing in which he engaged, he gave unremitting attention. With a mind quick and of great earnestness and power, and with indomitable perseverance, it was his characteristic to master whatever he attempted and to infuse his own energy into others with whom he associated. He was a prominent and active member of the State Teachers' Association, and was rarely absent from its meetings. He was elected its President in 1852. From 1854 till his death he was one of the associate editors of the "Ohio Journal of Education," and for a portion of the time editor of the mathematical department. In 1834 he published his first work upon arithmetic, soon followed by a series of works upon arithmetic and algebra, which are characterized especially by their practical thoroughness, and have had an almost unparalleled circulation.

LORIN ANDREWS, LL. D.

LORIN ANDREWS was born in Ashland County, Ohio, on the 1st of April, 1819. Having spent his boyhood in labor upon his father's farm, with a common school education, such as it then was in Ohio, he entered at eighteen years of age the Grammar School at Gambier, and afterward Kenyon College. Here, under the teachings of Bishop McIlvaine, a religious faith was awakened which shone out in and governed all his future daily life. Compelled by want of means to leave college he, in 1840, engaged as an assistant in the academy at Ashland. He afterward taught for a time at Mansfield, but returned and took charge of the Ashland Academy, at the same time pursuing the study of law. In 1847 he was admitted to the bar and the same year was called to the superintendency of the Public schools of Massillon. He applied himself zealously to the duties of this position, and becoming impressed with the lamentable defects of the common schools, he entered vigorously upon their improvement. He devoted his spare time to holding Teachers' Institutes and delivering educational addresses, and in the State Teachers' Association, which was organized in the same year, he was the leading spirit. As Chairman of the Executive Committee he was untiring, maturing plans which to others seemed hopeless, and with masterly skill directing the energies of the Association to their accomplishment. He seized upon the occasion of the election of a General Assembly, soon to be held under the new State Constitution, to secure "a school system which should be unparalleled for the liberality of its provisions, the wisdom of its measures, and the harmony and efficiency of its operations." Appointed by the Association in 1851 as its Agent, he resigned the principalship of Massillon High School, and immediately began a thorough canvass of the State, and during the first year's labor he procured the delivery of more than two hundred addresses, the holding of forty-one Institutes, and the organization of a large number of Union Schools.

At the next meeting of the Association Mr. Andrews recommended the publication of an educational paper, and the "*Journal of Education*" was accordingly established and its control and management intrusted to the Executive Committee, of which he was again Chairman. Again appointed State Agent, he devoted another year to the work of creating a public sentiment that should demand efficient action in favor of education by the next General Assembly, and as a result of these exertions and the vigorous coöperation of other laborers in the same cause, the School Law of 1853 was enacted, in whose provisions for a State Commissioner, Township Board of Education, Common School Libraries, free graded schools in towns and villages, and a free education for all, the practical views of Mr. Andrews are manifest. The friends of education with one voice commended Mr. Andrews to the suffrages of the people for the office of Commissioner, but the canvass assumed a political character and he was defeated. At the session of the Association in 1853 he was elected its President.

Soon after the Trustees of Kenyon College—then struggling in deep and almost hopeless embarrassment—called Mr. Andrews to the Presidency of that institution. Said Bishop McIlvaine:—"The condition of the College demanded just the qualities for which he was so distinguished—the talent for administration, a very sound judgment, a prompt and firm decision, united with a special drawing of heart toward young men in the course of their education." "And all the highest expectations of his administration were more than fulfilled.

Andrews

How entirely did he devote himself, heart and mind and body, to the work; how pure and single were his motives and aims; how little of self was ever seen in what he proposed or did; what zeal and diligence, what soundness of judgment and discrimination of character; what strong determination and prompt decision, and yet what love, tenderness, kindness—what an affectionate spirit and winning manner marked his whole administration. What student ever connected therewith will not bear testimony to the constancy and faithfulness of his Christian character? An earnest, tender zeal for the souls of those committed to his administration was as manifest as his devotedness to the culture of their minds." For these qualities, shown everywhere, and in all his conduct, another says:—"We utter a weak hyperbole when we say that President Andrews was the idol of the teachers of the State."

When the war of the Rebellion threatened, Mr. Andrews was alive to the needs of his country, and early in the progress of events addressed a letter to the Governor, pledging his services in case they should be needed, and when Sumter fell and the President issued a call for volunteers, he was the first man in Ohio to respond. All the State felt the example. He recruited a company from Knox County, but was shortly promoted to the head of the Fourth Regiment, and was detailed to service in Western Virginia. His regiment soon became noted for its discipline and efficiency, but he was taken ill with camp fever in the midst of his duties, and returned only to die. He died at Gambier on the 18th of September, 1861, universally beloved and deeply lamented.

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS, D. D.

ISRAEL W. ANDREWS, third son of Rev. William Andrews, pastor of the Congregational church at Danbury, Conn., was born on the 3d of January, 1815. His early education and preparation for college was received in a private family school under the instruction of his father and elder brothers. The family removed to Cornwall in 1827, and being then averse to pursuing a collegiate course, he was placed in a store at Sharon for two years, when he returned home, resumed his studies, and in May, 1833, entered Amherst College. At the close of the Freshman year he engaged in teaching in the academy at Cornwall, and afterward at Danbury, having previously acted as assistant in his father's school at Cornwall, and for two winters in the school of his brother, E. W. Andrews, in Torringford, Conn. In 1835 he entered Williams College where he graduated in 1837—of the first class that graduated under Rev. Dr. Mark Hopkins. Shortly before his graduation he accepted charge of an academy at Lee, Mass., where he remained until the Fall of 1838, when he was appointed tutor in Marietta College, Ohio, upon the unsolicited recommendation of Dr. Hopkins, and in the following Spring was made professor of mathematics and natural philosophy. In January, 1855, on the resignation of the President, Rev. Henry Smith, D. D., he was elected to succeed him. He received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from Williams College in 1856.

Besides the educational labors incident to his position in Marietta College, President Andrews has taken an active interest in the cause of popular education in Ohio, has assisted in conducting many Teachers' Institutes, and delivered numerous public lectures on educational topics. Before the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1856, he read, in 1852, a report upon the "*Connection between Schools and Colleges, and their Influence upon each other*," which was published, as also an address before the Association in 1854, on "*The Teacher's Duty to Himself*," and an address at the twenty-fifth

anniversary of Marietta College, in June, 1860. He has also contributed many articles to the "Journal of Education," especially the early volumes, and has been ever ready to aid in promoting the good of the schools in his immediate neighborhood. For six years he was in the Marietta Board of Education, for ten years was one of the Examiners for the city schools, and for very many years one of the Examiners for the County.

E. E. WHITE, A. M.

EMERSON ELBRIDGE WHITE was born at Mantua, Portage County, Ohio, January 10th, 1829. With the usual school training of a farmer's boy in Ohio, at the age of fourteen he had mastered "Daboll" and "Adams," and during the next winter was looking into algebra and natural philosophy. The winter following he undertook the task of subduing the rebellious spirits that had usually held sway in the old log school house of an adjoining district, known as "Sodom," and soon succeeded in infusing a manly spirit and love of study. Receiving soon after his parents' permission to seek an education, he entered Twinsburgh Academy, where he continued for three years, supporting himself by farm labor and teaching, having charge for a time of the academy at Mt. Vernon, and also of the Twinsburgh Academy temporarily, in the absence of its principal. In 1848 he entered Cleveland University, then opening auspiciously under President Mahan, and upon the death of the professor of mathematics, was engaged to conduct the recitations in mathematics. This he did with great acceptance, though his own class was one of those under his instruction. While thus performing double duty, he was solicited to take charge for some weeks of the Cleveland Public Schools, which was done without interruption of his studies and services at the University. He was induced to postpone his purpose of graduation at the following commencement and entrance upon the study of law, by his appointment as principal of the Clinton Street Ward School, in which position he continued two years, and during this time published his "*Class Book of Geography.*" Resigning this position in 1854, he was soon after elected principal of the Central High School, and now abandoning his former projects, he entered anew and with fresh zeal upon his life-business as a teacher. While in charge of this school he delivered a course of lectures upon Commercial Geography and Commercial Calculations, before the students of the Commercial College, and also wrote the larger portion of "*Bryant and Stratton's Commercial Arithmetic.*" In October, 1856, he accepted the superintendency of the Public Schools of Portsmouth, Ohio, resigning his connection with the Cleveland schools.

At the annual meeting of the State Association in 1859, Mr. White was elected Chairman of the Executive Committee, in which office he was continued for three years, his term of service being marked by the successful adjustment of the financial difficulties in which the Association had become involved. In 1861 he removed to Columbus to take charge of the "*Ohio Educational Monthly,*" of which he is still editor. In 1862 he was elected President of the Association, and in November, 1863, was appointed by Governor Todd, State Commissioner of Common Schools to fill the unexpired term of C. W. H. Cathcart, resigned. During his superintendency he edited a new edition of the School Code, with a digest of official decisions on its provisions, and with forms for the transaction of all business under it. He received the honorary degree of Master of Arts in 1859 from Marietta College.

Truly Yours
A. D. Lord,

DR. A. D. LORD.

ASA DEARBORN LORD, one of the pioneers and master-builders in the educational enterprise in Ohio, was born in Madrid, St. Lawrence County, New York, June 17th, 1816. Inheriting from his mother, who had been a teacher for sev-

DR. A. D. LORD.

ASA DEARBORN LORD, one of the pioneers and master-builders in the educational enterprise in Ohio, was born in Madrid, St. Lawrence County, New York, June 17th, 1816. Inheriting from his mother, who had been a teacher for seventeen years before her marriage, a love for teaching, and thoroughly taught by her, and in the district school, in the elementary branches, and by Rev. Asa Brainard, in the academy at Pottsdam, in academic studies, as well as indoctrinated in the teachers' department of that academy, in the practical work of school organization and instruction. And having served the usual apprenticeship in district schools, he commenced his career as a teacher in a private school in Willoughby, Ohio, in the Fall of 1837, which he changed for the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary in the Spring of 1839. Here, for eight years, he had under his charge nearly three hundred pupils every year, of whom nearly one-third prepared themselves as members of the teachers' class, for teaching. Through the graduates of that seminary, and its teachers' classes, he introduced new views of education, and he inaugurated a new system of teaching throughout the Western Reserve.

In the Autumn of 1843 he held a special course of instruction for two weeks, at Kirtland, for teachers, similar to that subsequently given under the name of Teachers' Institutes; and in September, 1845, was associated with Salem Town in conducting the first Teachers' Institute, so called, in Ohio, at Sandusky, from which time he has conducted many scores of such, at which thousands of teachers have been inspired with higher aims of professional study, and trained to improved methods of school management and instruction.

In the Spring of 1846, having become satisfied that while common schools in small rural districts could be greatly improved by the employment of better qualified teachers, that the public schools in cities and villages could be advanced only by a system of gradation by which pupils of the same age and attainments could be classed and taught by teachers having special qualification for each grade. To inform himself of the experience and views of New England educators, he entered into correspondence with Hon. Henry Barnard, who had, in visit to Ohio in 1843, and again in 1846, called the attention of school men to the subject, and induced John W. Andrews, Esq., and others, of Columbus, to begin the system in that city. February, 1847, he became superintendent of the schools of Columbus, which he visited on invitation of Mr. Andrews, in 1846, the first officer of that class in Ohio, and in a few months inaugurated a system of graded schools, including a public high school, which was greatly influential in introducing a similar system of union or graded schools into all the cities and large villages in Ohio.

In July, 1846, Dr. Lord—[he received his medical degree from the Medical College at Willoughby, where he attended lectures in 1844 and 1845.] commenced the publication of the "Ohio School Journal," at Kirtland, which he continued, after his own removal, at Columbus, until the close of 1859, when it was merged in "The School Friend," published by William B. Smith & Co., at Cincinnati. On the discontinuance of the latter, he edited the "Public School Advocate" for one year, when the "Ohio Journal of Education" was com-

* For History of Teachers' Institutes in Ohio, see Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. XV., 401.

menced, of which he was resident editor to the close of the first volume in 1856.

In April, 1854, Dr. Lord succeeded Lorin Andrews as agent of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, which he had helped to establish in 1846, and to whose proceedings he had given great practical efficiency as chairman of the executive committee from the start. He resumed the charge of the schools of Columbus in September, 1855, in which he continued till he was appointed superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Blind, in May, 1856. To the oversight and instruction of its pupils, and general management of the institution, he devoted the last ten years to the universal satisfaction of pupils, parents, and the State.

THOMAS H. HARVEY, A. M.

THOMAS H. HARVEY was born in New London, Merrimac County, in the State of New Hampshire, December 18, 1821, but received most of his elementary instruction in Ohio, his father having removed to that State in 1833, and settled in the neighborhood of Painsville. For four years (from 1836 to 1841) he served an apprenticeship in a printing office, and in the two years following studied law and Latin. In the Winter of 1842–3 he taught his first district school, and in the same year attended the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary at Kirtland, Lake County, then under the charge of Dr. A. D. Lord. With four terms' attendance on this seminary, and a continued experience in teaching the Geauga High School, which was opened under his auspices in 1845, and in the County Academy at Seneca in 1841, he became Superintendent of the Union School of Massillon in Stark County, in the Spring of 1851, and remained there till the Fall of of 1865, when he accepted a similar position at Painsville, Lake County.

In his whole career Mr. Harvey has been a diligent student, and a comprehensive and thoughtful reader, mastering more than the ordinary college curriculum in languages and mathematics, the moral, mental, and social sciences, and the history, principles, and methods of education, and no college graduate ever better deserved the degree of Master of Arts which was conferred on him by Kenyon College in 1858. He was one of the seven teachers who organized the Ohio State Teachers' Association at Akron, in 1847, and was the first Secretary, and its President, in 1865. He has labored every year in Teachers' Institutes since their first introduction in Ohio, in 1846, giving special attention to the subject of physical geography. He has been a frequent contributor to the educational periodicals of the State, the "*Ohio Journal of Education*," and its successor, the "*Ohio Educational Monthly*," and wherever wanted he has performed the duties of a public-spirited citizen.

II.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

(Continued from Vol. xvi., p. 352.)

II.—SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN THE NON-HUNGARIAN PROVINCES.

I.—HISTORY OF GYMNASIUMS.

Up to the time of the Empress Maria Theresa, under whom the present system of secondary instruction was inaugurated, the subjects and methods of teaching in the Latin schools of Austria, as in the schools of the Jesuits everywhere, bore the impress of the "*Ratio et Institutio Studiorum*" of Aquaviva.* In Bohemia and Moravia, under Rudolph II, (1577–1612,) there flourished some thirty Protestant schools, based upon Melancthon's system of classical study,† and under the direction of the University at Prague. Great zeal was shown by the cities of the provinces in sustaining these institutions, and the rectors of the University, from time to time, prescribed the course of study that should be followed. The most noted of these regulations were the "*Schola Zatecensis*" of the learned Jacobus Strabo (1575), the "*Ordo Studiorum*" of Petrus Codicillus (1586), and the rules of 1609, which established five classes and prescribed the grammar of Philip Ramée, the dialogues of Castalian and Vives, the epistles and select orations of Cicero, Ovid's Tristia, Virgil's Æneid, selections from Horace, Buchanan, and the Greek Testament, with Plutarch and some other historians.

At the abolition of the order of Jesuits there were thirty-seven gymnasiums under their direction in the provinces then belonging to the Empire, of which the oldest was that at Innsbruck. As characteristic of these schools it is scarcely necessary to mention the divison of the course into three "grammar" classes, devoted to "the rudiments," "grammar," and "syntax," with some times a preparatory class—two "humanity" classes, for "poetry" and "rhetoric"—and a two or three years' "philosophical" course, in "logic," "physics" and "metaphysics"; the almost exclusive use of the Latin language in both speaking and writing; and the only occasional introduction of "real" instruction in the lower classes, while it was totally neglected in the higher. Great stress has been laid by the defenders of the system of the Jesuits upon the prominence given in the selection of candidates to the order, to their efficiency as teachers; upon the general use and extended study of the Latin tongue; upon the requirement that each member of the order, after two years of university

* Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. xiv., p. 462. † Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. iv., p. 749.

study, should become the teacher of a grammar class, thus supplementing the zeal and devotion of youth to the more mature experience and wisdom of the prefects and masters of the higher classes; upon the usual requirement of three years of service in the instruction of the higher classes before the completion of the theological course; and upon the advantages resulting from the wealth and full endowment of their schools. On the other hand it is asserted that less worthy considerations often governed in the selection of members and in the management of the schools; that "Jesuits' Latin" bore an ill repute among the lovers of pure Latinity, while more accordance was given to the practical use of that language than accords with the spirit of more recent times; that the rules which regulated the removal and change of teachers were such as to make thorough instruction impossible, especially in the philosophical classes; that in these classes the classics and applied mathematics were wholly neglected, and other instruction given only by dictation; and that the amount of instruction was greatly limited by the length of the vacations and the number of holidays. It may at least be asserted, without injustice, that while their schools for a long period answered fully the demands of the times, and were the admiration of even their opponents, yet the stubbornness with which they clung to the forms of scholasticism and humanism, in which their system of instruction originated, showed itself at length unfavorably in the want of originality of thought, in an exclusive fostering of a mere fluency in the use of language, in an utter indifference to the national tongue and to popular enlightenment and culture, and in a fondness for abstract, barren speculation, and a proneness to dogmatism.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the Piarists also gradually extended their schools from Bohemia into the other provinces, and in 1773 they numbered twenty-four gymnasiums. They were not strictly bound to the plan of instruction adopted by their founder and followed in general the method of the Jesuits, but giving more attention to Greek, German, history, geography, mathematics, and physics. The candidates, after two years' training, were obliged to teach six or eight years in the common schools before a position could be obtained in a gymnasium. It is to the credit of this order that their schools rivaled in efficiency and reputation the institutions of the far more wealthy and powerful order of the Jesuits. There were also a score of schools of a similar grade under the charge of the Benedictine and other religious orders, including one at Roveredo, conducted by lay teachers, and a single Protestant gymnasium, founded at Teschen in 1709.

The attempt to reform the Jesuit system may be said to have commenced with the eighteenth century, under Joseph I., who, in 1711, called the attention of the rector of the University to the condition of the philosophical course. A commissioner was appointed by the emperor Charles VI. to propose a plan of reform for the entire University, before whom the Jesuits defended their system as in every respect unexceptionable. The commission made no report, but in 1735 the Emperor issued a decree which for the first

time placed their educational operations under government control, and was intended to promote the introduction of a more judicious and better regulated course of study. The attention of Maria Theresa was drawn to the subject long before her efforts for the improvement of the common schools, and Gerhard van Swieten, previously of Leyden, was selected to guide the reform, who was keen in detecting faults and prompt in applying remedies, but unlike some of his successors, willingly recognized and retained whatever was of value in the existing system. Even during the war of the Austrian succession, (which made more evident than ever before the unity of interest of the several provinces,) the Empress instituted inquiries into the condition of instruction, especially in the Protestant gymnasiums of Bohemia, and as a consequence, in 1747, required that greater attention should be everywhere given to history, Greek, and arithmetic, and to the gradual introduction of German grammar. The vacations were to be shortened, much useless instruction was done away with, and in the philosophical course the study of ethics, politics, and applied mathematics was required. Serfs were to be admitted to the schools only with the consent of their lords, and to still further assure the benefits of the schools to those best able to improve them, scholars of proven incapacity were to be immediately removed. At the same time the attainment of an academical degree was made necessary before entrance upon theological or medical study.

This reform was extended by the more general decrees of 1752, which made the course of study still more prescribed, permitted instruction in the prescribed branches only in the authorized gymnasiums, provided a system of inspection and examination, with semi-annual reports to the imperial government, and required the preparation and use of improved text-books. In 1760, a State Board was formed for the supervision of education and text-books, consisting of Swieten and Archbishop Migazzi, while subordinate boards were formed in the several provinces. These changes were introduced but imperfectly and with great difficulty, though the books for instruction, in the languages especially, were revised and improved. Some of the forms of superintendence were never carried into effect. The provincial boards appointed were at first composed entirely of Jesuits, but the war upon the order by the State, the secular clergy, and many of the other religious orders, had now commenced in earnest, their places were soon filled by others, and their influence at the Universities was rapidly and greatly diminished. Finally, in 1772, the order was entirely abolished, and, as a consequence, the whole subject of gymnasial reform assumed a new aspect. The extensive possessions of the order were appropriated by the State, and the larger portion shortly afterwards was devoted to educational uses, and has since constituted what has been usually styled the "Educational Fund." The gymnasiums of the Jesuits thus became endowed State institutions. But the Empress deemed it advisable that their number should be somewhat diminished,

both on account of the want of teachers, which could not otherwise be remedied but by the appointment of ex-Jesuits, and for the purpose of procuring means, even at the expense of the gymnasiums, for the improvement of the common schools. Another prominent motive was the fear lest agriculture, trade and commerce should suffer if the facilities for entering upon literary pursuits were too great. A number of the more incomplete and poorly endowed institutions were accordingly gradually suppressed, amounting in all to thirty-two, and embracing some that had not belonged to the Jesuits.

The necessity, however, for a more complete and uniform organization of the schools that remained was no less urgent than before. The State Board of Education, temporarily suspended in 1772, upon the death of Swieten and resignation of the Archbishop, who was opposed to many of the proposed changes, was revived in 1774, with Kressel as president, and required to report a plan of reform for all the educational institutions of the Empire, including common schools, gymnasiums, convent schools, academies, and universities, and giving special consideration to the question of the general use of the German language in instruction. A partial report, giving a plan of study for the "philosophical" course, drawn up by Martini, was made, and received the approval of the Empress during the same year, and provision was made for the introduction of the revised course in the University at Vienna, and as soon as possible in the other universities and convent schools. The question of gymnasial reform, however, was not so easily decided, and occasioned hot dispute between two opposing parties—the one favoring the system of the Jesuits, the other desiring to introduce a course and method similar to those which years of trial in the more advanced German States, especially in Prussia and Saxony, had proven so excellent and advantageous. Prominent among the plans proposed by the latter party was one advanced by Prof. Hess, of the Vienna University, which regarding the gymnasiums as institutions chiefly for general instruction, preparatory to higher scientific study, still retained Latin as the principal branch, but added to it a judicious and somewhat extended course of Greek and German study, mathematics, history, and natural science—the whole wrought out with much minuteness of detail. Martini recognized its many excellencies and warmly recommended it to the approval of the State Board, and after being modified by Hess in some of its wider deviations from the existing system, it was reported by them to the Empress, and by her referred to her principal ministers for their opinions. But the idea that a gymasium should not have an exclusively philological character had not yet gained general favor, and while many experienced schoolmen received and sustained the projected change with enthusiasm, many others prominent in the government were as violently opposed to it. The Empress finally appealed to Gratian Marx, then principal of the Savoy Ritter Academy, who laid before a special Educational Board a plan which was approved by

them, and shortly afterwards, (October, 1775,) received the imperial sanction.

This system of Marx was fashioned upon the model of the Piarist institutions, in which, through the concerted action of the principals, various changes and reforms had been made as early as 1763. But beyond stricter regulations respecting the qualifications for admission, the semi-annual examinations and classification of the students and the removal of such as were found incompetent, the requirement of a thorough knowledge of Latin and its use in both speaking and writing on the part of all students intended for the university, and special provision for the supervision of the gymnasiums in the several provinces, the changes in the course of study were made only gradually as proper text-books were prepared, and were still incomplete at the death of the Empress in 1780. In the three grammar classes, the principal aim was still to speak Latin with correctness, to which was added a slight knowledge of Greek and some instruction in arithmetic, geography, and history, with the catechism. In the two humanity classes, all the instruction in the languages was given wholly in Latin, and admission and promotion depended upon the proficiency of the scholars in its use. Additional teachers were here provided for instruction in Greek, and though the standing of the students was not effected by their proficiency in this language, no premiums could be gained without satisfactory progress in it. Increased attention was to be given to mathematics, history, and geography, and as was previously the case, admission to the philosophical course depended upon the result of an examination in the studies of the gymnasium. No children of the class of serfs could be admitted to these classes, even so late as 1804, without permission from the public authorities.

But Joseph II., notwithstanding all that was done by him for the benefit of the common schools, had but little sympathy with many of the plans of gymnasial reform. The idea of Hess, that the gymnasiums should be made institutions for laying the ground-work of a general education, seemed a dream that was impossible to be realized. Their proper aim appeared to him rather to be the education of capable civil officers, the inculcation of "morality,"* and the imparting of such instruction as was most immediately and practically useful. The legislation of his reign was chiefly confined to general instructions to directors and teachers in relation to text-books, and a single ordinance upon the subject of instruction and discipline. The practical acquisition of the Latin language was made the principal object, the secondary branches being left in a great measure to the pleasure of the individual teachers. The course and amount of instruction were carefully regulated and none but the prescribed text-books were permitted, to the exclusion of the many manuscript works in

*The term "morality," as often used in this connection, does not convey at once to the American mind its true, prominent idea, implying, as it does, a habit of obedience to constituted authority, and compliance with law, which makes its inculcation a matter of supreme political importance.

which teachers had, too often to the detriment of their pupils, shown off their learning or self-conceit. Corporal punishment was prohibited and a system of rewards and punishments substituted, by means of records of merit and demerit, seats of honor and disgrace, and various similar methods of appeal to the sensitiveness of the scholars. Private meetings and societies of students, of a religious character, were forbidden, and regular attendance upon public worship, daily mass, catechetical instruction, &c., was made obligatory. The philosophical classes were also reorganized, the only essential reform being the substitution of the German language for the Latin, till this time exclusively used in instruction. Upon the whole, the character and efficiency of this higher department, under the influences bearing upon it, had deteriorated. In addition to these regulations, Greek was afterwards made so far obligatory upon the university classes that even the lowest grade for certificate could not be obtained without satisfactory progress in it. Hitherto, instruction in the gymnasiums had been gratuitous, and aided by the religious orders many had attended who afterwards found it difficult to sustain themselves through a course of university study. To discourage the attendance of such students, and also to increase the number of stipends, tuition fees were now exacted, varying from twelve to eighteen florins in the different gymnasial and philosophical classes, and the amount thus raised was added to the fund from which stipends were granted to students designed for the university. At the same time, the "seminaries" and boarding schools (*convicte*) were abolished, and their property added to the same fund. The establishment of private institutions was discouraged and valid certificates could be granted only by the gymnasiums, on which account their semi-annual examinations were open to private pupils. It soon, however, became evident, even to the government, that these schools were not fulfilling their object, and the more that no means were provided for the training of their teachers. Simply to pass the semi-annual examinations became the sole purpose for which the pupils studied, and discipline disappeared as its religious foundation was swept away by the rationalistic tendencies of the times. The party that had opposed the Emperor's reforms, especially in religious matters, called attention to these evils, and memorialized the throne for their reform. The Emperor himself acknowledged the force of these complaints, and only a few days before his death, (February, 1790,) appointed a commission to report a plan for the more perfect organization and gradation of the gymnasiums and higher schools. His successor, Leopold II., to whom the complaints were renewed, entrusted the reform to Martini, already president of the commission appointed by Joseph. Martini's plan, which went into effect in October, 1790, consisted in the formation of a "Teachers' Association" in each university department and in each gymnasium, which should have control of the instruction in their institutions, subject to the general direction of the "Educational Session" in each province, which was in turn subject indirectly to the higher school officials. Some provision was

made for the supply of more capable teachers, but the details of the plan upon these and other points, instruction, discipline, &c., are of the less importance as it was never carried but imperfectly into operation.

Emperor Francis succeeded Leopold II. in 1792. He favored the peculiar views of his minister, Rottenhann, who recognized the superiority of the gymnasiums of Protestant Germany, and recommended an examination of them and of the public schools of England. But in his opinion the higher speculative and historical branches of the philosophical course should be placed as far as possible out of general reach, and their pursuit by those who intended to engage in the practical business of life, and who could not hope to acquire a thorough understanding of them, should be discouraged as dangerous. Ordinary men should be content with the studies of immediate use to them and with received rules and principles. Prominence should therefore be given in the philosophical classes to mathematics and the natural sciences, while the instruction in history should be conducted with great care and judgment, to avoid conveying dangerous impressions and erroneous ideas, and a complete course of philosophical study should be established at only two or three of the universities. The correctness of these opinions was immediately questioned and warmly discussed by the Board of Educational Reform, which was appointed in 1795, and the debate was continued until interrupted for the consideration of the special reports upon the different classes of institutions, made by the individual members of the Board. The report upon gymnasiums was drawn up by I. F. Lang, principal of one of the Vienna schools, and of high reputation for scholarship and success in teaching. Rottenhann submitted a plan for a "lyceal course," as a substitute for the philosophical classes, and as intermediate between the gymnasial course and a course of true philosophical study. Reports upon instruction in special branches were also made by Gerstner, of the Prague University, by Mumelter, of the Vienna University, and others.

The final report of the Board was not made until 1799, and some time passed before any decisive measures were taken. In 1802, the Teachers' Associations, which had become very unpopular, were abolished, and the previously existing offices of superintendent of gymnasiums and of the higher departments, were restored. Lang was appointed to the former position. Meanwhile several ordinances were issued, designed to aid the enforcement of stricter discipline, and to foster a proper religious feeling, in opposition to the infidel tendencies of the age. Every gymnasium was required to have a catechist, by whom two hours of religious instruction should be given weekly, and his good report was essential to promotion to a higher class or to the holding of a stipend. Attendance at mass and at religious worship was strictly required, the conduct of pupils, even out of school hours, was under supervision, and their progress in school was encouraged by frequent reviews and examinations. Record was to be kept of the conduct and standing of each pupil, which at the completion

of his studies should be returned to the government and have decisive weight in the making of official appointments.

The first general measure of reform, differing in many respects from that proposed by Lang, was adopted in 1805. By this the number of classes in the higher gymnasiums was increased to six, and there were required to be as many teachers as classes, each strictly confined to instruction in a single branch. The hours of study were limited to eighteen in the week, half which were devoted to Latin throughout the course. Three hours were given to geography and history, two to mathematics, and the remaining two to natural history and physics in the three lower classes, and to Greek in the higher. The speaking of Latin was again strictly insisted upon in the third and higher classes. The students were to be graded according to conduct and proficiency into three divisions, by which promotion from one class to another should be governed, and at each semi-annual examination prize books were to be awarded. No private tutor or teacher could give instruction in the studies of the gymnasium without the permission of the prefect, (except country pastors in the aid of poor boys,) and private pupils in gymnasial towns were required to pay the tuition fees, to be present at the monthly examinations, and to pay an annual examination tax. A number of improved text-books were speedily issued, with detailed instructions and judicious advice respecting their use, for such as having been class teachers were least prepared to act as department teachers.

In 1808, all the regulations respecting study, instruction and discipline were gathered into a "gymnasial code," thus completing the organization of these schools, as the "School Constitution" had done for the common schools. The superintendency beyond the provincial capitals was committed to the officials of the circles—the subordinate supervision of the religious gymnasiums to the principals of the orders, and of the remainder to suitable members of the clergy. The director in each capital was also superintendent of gymnasial instruction throughout the province, and the one at Vienna was the referee for the gymnasial system in the State Board of Education, which had been re-established. By Lang's indefatigable exertions, the hitherto insufficient salaries of the teachers were raised, notwithstanding the unfavorable condition of the State finances, and amounted now to 5–800 florins, which resulted in drawing not a few able teachers from the legal profession.

A re-organization was at the same time being effected in the philosophical course, which was limited at the lyceums to two years and included only the most essential branches, but at the universities was extended to three years and afforded thorough philosophical instruction. The obligatory branches were religion, giving a more doctrinal basis to what had previously been taught historically,—philosophy, embracing psychology, logic, metaphysics, and moral philosophy,—elementary mathematics, physics, and general history. The instruction in philosophy, mathematics, and physics was given in Latin, while some attention was also given

to Greek. Two years study only was required of theological students, the third year being for those intending a full university course. The study of physiology was required of those designed for the medical profession, and of Austrian history of legal students. The optional studies were æsthetics, with reference particularly to German literature, history of the arts and sciences, pedagogy, practical geometry, agriculture and technology, to which a fourth year could be given. Full liberty was given for the study of diplomacy, the higher mathematics, astronomy, the modern languages, &c. The text-books were prescribed, and the examinations and gradation of the students as at the gymnasiums. The salaries at the lyceums were 800–1,000fl., at the universities 1,000–1,200fl., at Vienna 1,100–1,500fl., (afterwards raised to 1,500–2,000fl.)

Vacant teacherships, when under the control of the State, were open to competition, and the choice determined by an examination of the candidates. The first attempt at the special instruction of teachers was made at Vienna in 1809, but unsuccessfully. In 1811, two assistant teacherships were established with the same design at the university gymnasiums, and also in connection with the philosophical classes at Vienna and Prague.

The number of the gymnasiums had, during this time, gradually increased, owing to the efforts of the religious orders to thus strengthen themselves and at the same time remedy the prevalent scarcity of candidates for the priesthood, many communities also showing a willingness to contribute freely for the establishment of new schools, or the restoration of those that had been suspended. Upon the re-establishment of the Austrian monarchy, after the fall of Napoleon, the gymnasial system of Austria was extended to Salzburg, Carniola, the Littorale, Tyrol and Vorarlberg, and Dalmatia. Some time was found requisite for the re-organization of the schools of Tyrol and Dalmatia, and yet more for that of the gymnasiums and higher schools of Lombardy and Venice. In 1818, philosophical departments existed in connection with the three universities at Vienna, Prague, and Lemberg, and at eight lyceums in as many different provinces. There were also twelve "philosophical schools." The number of gymnasiums was eighty-two, of which twenty-five were in Bohemia, nine in Moravia, eight in each of the provinces of Lower Austria, Tyrol, and Galicia, five in Styria, four in Silesia, three in Dalmatia, while Upper Austria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Littorale, and the Frontier had each two, and Salzburg and Bukowina had each one.

Though the rigidly enforced adherence to the prescribed text-books and to the regulations respecting the extent and distribution of lessons tended to make instruction mechanical on the part of both teacher and scholar, yet much was effected through the labors of the more faithful teachers. But after the peace that relieved the Empire from its struggles with its foreign enemies, a successful effort was made to effect a retrograde movement, and to return gymnasial instruction to the position which it held in the days of Maria Theresa. Everything that favored progress in educa-

tion it had become customary to denounce as revolutionary, as protestant and hostile to the church, as Prussian and dangerous to Austria. In 1815, Francis had already taken measures to this end, and in 1818 the system of class teachers was restored and in the following year the time given to instruction in Latin was increased at the expense of that in geography and history, while natural history and physics were wholly omitted. The system of class teachers, already proven inefficient when it made less extensive demands upon the abilities of the teachers, could but decidedly increase the mechanical character of the instruction given, few having a satisfactory capacity for teaching more than one branch and beyond this but a mere understanding of the contents of the text-books in other branches. An improvement in the text-books now became a prime necessity, but they were left untouched, notwithstanding, too, the great advances that had been made in philological and other sciences. The spirit of alienation from the rest of Germany was producing its legitimate fruits.

In 1820, it was further proposed to limit the philosophical course to those branches most necessary as preparatory for the higher departments. In 1824, this change was effected and the course reduced to two years, to which a third could be added for the optional branches. Instruction was mostly given in German, (or Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) and with the new text-books that followed, the connection between the gymnasium and the philosophical course was wholly severed, and the latter burdened with an amount of mathematics and philosophy for which the lower classes gave no preparation. By this a restriction was laid upon the number of students preparing for the universities, more effectual than all previous ordinances, though other less prominent measures had a tendency to the same result. Not more than forty per cent., upon an average, of those who entered the philosophical course completed the second year's studies. There were, indeed, institutions that were less strict, but their reputation was low, and the discipline exceedingly loose. But even in the better institutions, discipline was more or less defective, and only personal influence or despotic severity on the part of individual teachers could govern the unruly crowds of the lecture hall.

This condition of things was sufficient, even under the political restraints of that day, to arouse a number of the friends of education to an earnest struggle against it. The most noteworthy of the articles published by these men in 1828 were those of Professors Baumgartner, Ettinghausen, and Ficker, complaining of the compression of the entire study of geometry and physics into three semesters of the philosophical course, of the subordinate position of Latin philology and complete neglect of Greek philology, and of the degraded position of natural and general history. The government, indeed, had never had very strong confidence in the continuance of the new plan of philosophical study, which had been approved at first for only four years, but though these opposing views were received and listened to by the still existing Reform Board, yet no

action was ever taken upon them. It was not until 1837, the third year of the reign of Ferdinand I., that Hallaschka, then superintendent of philosophical studies, could again broach the question of reform. He urged the re-establishment of the three years' course, at least in the higher institutions, and, in general, a return as far as possible to the plan abandoned in 1824, but still retaining German (and Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) as the language of instruction. This was not wholly without result. In 1838, an examination was made into the condition of the gymnasiums, and an expression of opinion as to their improvement was required from all the gymnasial and philosophical directors, prior to any change in the philosophical studies. The opinion in favor of a thorough reform was unanimous, the chief defects being that attention was principally given to the Latin grammar and too little to the means of higher training to be found in a more comprehensive reading of the classics, that the speaking and writing of this language were taught very inefficiently, that the limitation of Greek merely to the grammar made it very distasteful to the pupils, that the instruction in mathematics laid no sufficient basis for the requirements of the first philosophical year, that more stress was laid throughout upon memorizing than upon mental apprehension, and that success was made yet more difficult by the want of any institution for the special training of teachers, by the deficiencies of the old textbooks, and by the over-crowding of the classes.

These views and the accompanying plans of reform were submitted to an able commission appointed in 1841, whose report, in which many of the proposed changes were approved, was received and for the most part accepted by the State Board of Education, but still no measures were taken for carrying them into execution. In 1844, the same commission were called upon for a second expression of their views, who in reply reiterated and defended their former positions. This report, however, gave rise to a discussion of the expediency of a general introduction of the department system of teachers, and induced an inquiry in reply to which three professors of the Vienna and as many of the Prague philosophical department gave an essentially unanimous opinion in its favor. The Board of Education in 1845 fully approved the report of the commission, but limited its action to a reduction of the weekly lessons to eighteen, seven of which were given to Latin, two each to religion, mathematics and German, two to geography and history, one to physics, and two in the four higher classes to Greek. A second commission had at the same time been appointed for the revision of the plan of philosophical study, who adopted essentially the proposition already made in 1837, going back to the system that had been laid aside in 1824, but insisting more decidedly than that had done upon the close connection that should exist between the obligatory philosophical course and the gymnasial studies. The necessity for reform found expression finally also in the press, even under the restrictions of the censorship. But the various projects thus advanced from all sides remained without result till in Octo-

ber, 1847, the distinction of three upper and three lower gymnasial classes was generally allowed, as well as the drawing up of new rules of discipline, and by way of trial the introduction of the reformed plan of gymnasial study, (but with class teachers and a department teacher of mathematics and physics,) was permitted for six years in Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, and Milan. The political revolution of the following year was more radical and more prompt in its operation.

There were at this time in the Empire (not including Lombardy and Venice,) philosophical classes at six universities, five lyceums, and fifteen philosophical schools. The number of gymnasiums was eighty-three. The number of students attending the gymnasiums was 19,657 in 1828, 18,567 in 1838, and 21,612 in 1847, among whom are included 1,597 private pupils. In the same year the number of students pursuing the obligatory philosophical course was approximately 4,770. In Lombardy and Venice, besides the fourteen imperial gymnasiums, there were thirteen communal, twenty-two episcopal, seven "convicte," and eight private gymnasiums, three gymnasial institutes, and twenty-one gymnasial schools. Only the first two classes can be considered as wholly and the next two as partially public institutions, and hence of the 15,540 pupils, 4,426 were private scholars. So the philosophical schools were divided into twelve public, twenty-one episcopal, sixteen convent, and twenty-six private institutions, the pupils in the public and episcopal schools numbering 3,276.

The results of gymnasial instruction up to this time have already been sufficently indicated, their strongest condemnation being found in the pleas for reform continually urged by the highest educational authorities. In the political revolution that now occurred, rejuvenated Austria found no branch of public instruction so ripe and ready for successful re-organization as the gymnasiums. Feuchtersleben, in his "Outlines of a System of Public Instruction," laid down as the object of the gymnasium an advanced general education, using as a principal means the ancient languages and their literature, annexing to it the philosophical course, and for this purpose making the number of classes eight. The distinction of the upper and lower gymnasiums he based upon the essential difference of instruction in each, giving class teachers to the one and department teachers to the other. The subjects of instruction he made nearly the same as had been settled upon in the previous discussions and reports.

But the most efficient agent in the re-organization of the intermediate schools was Exner, ministerial councilor. Acting when revolution and rapid change were the order of the day, the incorporation of the philosophical course into the gymnasiums located wherever philosophical classes had previously existed, was decreed in August, 1848. The addition of similar classes to other gymnasiums was left to the choice of the communities, but instruction in German and in natural history was introduced into all gymnasiums. This change began with the school year in 1849. The bestowal of the professorship of philology at Vienna upon

Hermann Bonitz, brought to Exner's aid one who united unwonted acuteness and genius for systematizing with an intimate knowledge of the intermediate schools and their wants. From their united exertions sprang the "Plan for the organization of the gymnasiums and real schools of Austria," which was published by the Ministry of Instruction, 16th Sept. 1849. It is necessary here only to indicate the essential points of the reform thus inaugurated. The philosophical course was separated entirely from the higher department and united with the humanity classes to form the "upper gymnasium," from which the "lower gymnasium" was distinct in gradation, serving as a preparatory department in all branches. The gymnasium should afford all the means necessary for attaining a general advanced education, combining thorough mathematics and scientific instruction with philological training and the study of history, the main difficulty being to unite harmoniously the instruction in all the different branches. The board of teachers was made the primary organ of administration; the director, taking the place of the former local director, vice-director, and prefect, became responsible for the uniformity and firmness of the management, and also took part in instruction. A medium was devised between the systems of class and department teachers, by dividing the branches of study into groups in the examination for teacherships, creating the class "ordinarius" as the center of union of each class, and having a classification of the scholars under each study, as well as a general class gradation. Competitive examinations for teacherships were abolished. The hours of study were from twenty-two to twenty-six in a week. The purposeless reading of poor Latin, and the previous waste of time upon poetry and rhetoric, gave place as far as possible to the extended reading of classic authors, while more time was given to Greek, and the claims of the German and of the several provincial languages received full consideration. The study of geography was mostly united with that of history, which was both biographical and chronological in its character. Metaphysics and moral philosophy were deemed suited only to a riper age and the fuller preparation of the university. In the discipline all pupils were upon a common footing, the higher classes holding a different position only as far as would naturally follow from their more advanced age. The eight years' course was closed by a "maturity examination," which was made essential to admission to the universities, and aside from the requirement of this examination the State renounced control of every kind over private instruction in the gymnasial branches.

The energy with which this plan was carried into speedy operation is eminently due to Count Thun, who entered upon this service with an especial predilection, while remarkable efficiency was also shown by the provincial authorities. In 1850, the philosophical classes that had hitherto existed at the universities, lyceums, and philosophical schools, were wholly merged in the gymnasiums, and communities, corporations, and

individuals aided liberally in forming these classes in other places, and in the endowment of new institutions. Seminaries for the training of teachers were shortly opened at Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, Parvia, and Padua, and considerable appropriations were granted for the aid of aspirants to teacherships. To insure uniformity in carrying out the new system of instruction and an interchange of opinions among the teachers, conferences of directors and teachers in all the provinces were encouraged, and chiefly through the exertions of Bonitz a journal devoted to the interests of the gymnasiums was established.

The new organization did not include instruction in religion. Negotiations were entered into by the Minister with the convention of Bishops assembled at Vienna in 1849, and it was agreed that this instruction should be under the direction of the bishops in their respective districts. The old text-books in all branches were at once removed, the bishops discarding also those that had been used in religious instruction, and though the principal dependence was necessarily at first upon books of foreign production, yet measures were immediately taken for the composition and publication within the Empire of suitable text-books of every grade. Moreover, for the furtherance of gymnasial reform, school statistics were found to be an indispensable need, and were taken in hand simultaneously by the Gymnasial Journal and the statistical bureau.

In 1753, Exner fell a sacrifice to his excessive labors, leaving his work still incomplete. His place was supplied by Kleemann. Increased consistency and completeness were gradually given to the new system by additional enactments, and on the 9th of December, 1854, it was decisively approved. To this were added regulations respecting the official rank of teachers, and in 1856 the final law upon the examination of candidates for teacherships.

There was of course no want of violent opposition to the new order of things. A considerable portion of the clergy and of the higher officials sympathized with those who favored an exclusively Austrian nationality. Loud complaints were continually arising of the complete supplanting of the old by the new, of a disposition to favor whatever was of foreign origin, and systematic attempts at Germanization, of the overburdening of the pupils, of the neglect of religious instruction, of a deficiency of Latin instruction, and of the severity of the maturity examination. The Ministry of Instruction opposed with determined earnestness the efforts of the national party, and even went so far beyond the early plan of reorganization as to make the German language an obligatory study at all gymnasiums and the prevalent language of instruction except in Lombardy and Venice. But on the other hand the views of the ministry coincided in many respects with the other demands of the opposition, and subsequent enactments indicated a wavering of purpose in regard to the plan of studies and its operation. This attitude of the government towards its own work was not without its influence upon the agents ap-

pointed for its execution, and from official circles complaints began to arise of the unsatisfactory results of the system. The seminaries, indeed, were actively engaged in their duties, the Journal ably investigated various important questions, and school literature grew in compass and in depth, but many faults in the carrying out of the system, which in the zeal of earlier years had been overlooked, now excited attention and became an element of strength to the opposition.

In 1857 the Ministry of Instruction published a series of proposed modifications, and required the Gymnasial Journal to open its columns to a discussion of their merits. The proposals, however, as a whole, found but a single defender, the many remaining writers agreeing that the changes in view would prove substantially an overthrow of the existing system, making the lower gymnasium for the most part a mere Latin school, and removing it from its position as preparatory to the higher, thus again burdening the latter, as the philosophical course had been before, with the whole weight of real instruction, to the certain deterioration of the classical studies. These views were emphatically sustained by other members of the press, and as at the convention of the philologists and schoolmen of Germany, held at Vienna in September, 1858, the weight of their authority was thrown in favor of the existing system and of the assimilation of the Austrian school system to that of Germany, it was continued in operation as before. The only important ordinance of the last year of Thun's ministry, (1859,) again removed from all but the State gymnasiums the prescription of German as the language of instruction in the higher classes.

With the new life that had now been infused into all the relations of the Empire, redoubled activity was shown in multiplying the number of gymnasiums, without aid to any great extent from the State treasury. The number of scholars increased from year to year in all the provinces, notwithstanding the strong feeling in favor of real schools, the increase from 1857 to 1860 being 25 per cent., while that of the population was but 3.3 per cent. The Gymnasial Journal labored on vigorously, and a second journal was established in the interests of the gymnasiums and real schools. The dissolution of the Ministry of Instruction in 1860 was accompanied by rumors of intended changes, which disappeared upon the appointment of Schmerling to the position that had been occupied by Thun. The first session of the representative branch of the government (August, 1861,) brought an unexpected assault from the extreme national party in a motion that the lower gymnasium be changed to a burgher school with class teachers, and a substitution, as far as possible, of the national language for the classical, while the upper gymnasium should be changed to a scientific lyceum, and the maturity examination be abolished. The futility of these changes was conclusively demonstrated by Hochegger and Bonitz, and no action was taken upon the motion by the *Reichsrath*. The extreme realistic and utilitarian views of the opposition have since

found expression again and again, but with the majority they have met with no sympathy, and when in the autumn of 1863 a strong effort was made for a closer approach of the gymnasium and real school, it was made evident to all that the existing system had become firmly established and was to be sustained—a result which can not fail to favor increased activity and advanced educational development.

(*To be continued.*)

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN CALIFORNIA.

1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE following outline of the condition of education, past and present, in the State of California, is derived from one of the most valuable documents of its class that has hitherto claimed the attention of the educators of our country. We refer now to the "*First Biennial Report* of (Hon. JOHN SWETT,) the Superintendent of Public Instruction," a volume of 420 pages.

Superintendent Swett has, in this noble contribution to the interests of national education, laid our whole country under lasting obligations; and it is a highly gratifying indication of its value, that California's younger sister, Nevada, has adopted, for the moulding of her public-school system, that of her elder sister, as matured and perfected by the indefatigable exertions of one whose long professional experience, and peculiar qualifications for his present office, give such force to all his suggestions, whether regarding methods of instruction, or legislative measures for the diffusion of education.

To those of our readers who have not enjoyed opportunity for perusing Mr. Swett's Report, the following summary sketch of the educational progress of California, as a State, will prove, we doubt not, peculiarly interesting:

"The foundation of the public School system of California was laid in the Constitutional Convention, held in Monterey, Sept. 1849.

"The select committee on the State Constitution reported in committee of the whole, in favor of appropriating the five hundred thousand acres of land granted by Congress to new States for the purpose of internal improvements, in addition to the 16th and 36th Sections in each township, to constitute a perpetual School Fund. The adoption of this Report secured to California her school fund and school system.

The State Convention, as adopted, made provision, also, for the election by the people, of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, for the establishment of "a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each district, at least three

months in every year," and for the disposition of lands granted to the State for the use of a University.

San Francisco was the first place in the State to organize a free public school, by its ordinance adopted in 1850, in virtue of which Mr. J. C. Pelton is entitled to the credit of pioneer in that department. In 1851, the city made provision for a City Board of Education and a Superintendent of Schools, under whose direction two schools were opened in December. 1851, in conformity with the State school law passed that year.

In January, 1852, the first Superintendent of public instruction, Mr. John G. Marvin, made his first annual report, recommending a revision of the law of the previous year, an appropriation of $50,000, together with a school tax of five cents on a hundred dollars, the creation of the office of county superintendents, and the establishment of school libraries.

In 1852, a revised school law was, after some opposition, adopted which embraced many salutary provisions touching the pecuniary interests of the State in connection with the school fund, the introduction of text-books, the examination of teachers, the government of schools, and the annual holding of a teachers' convention.

In 1853, a school fund was further secured by special legislative provision; the cities and counties of the State, were empowered to tax themselves for the support of public schools; and provision was made for securing a share of the school fund to religious and sectarian schools.

On the first of January, 1854, Mr. Paul K. Hubbs was elected as successor to Mr. Marvin, and, in his first annuual report, stated that the school fund from the sale of school lands amounted to $463,000. In a second report for the same year, Mr. Hubbs mentioned the alarming fact, that, notwithstanding the increased average attendance on school, vast numbers of the children of the State were growing up unable to read or write. He recommended also, the establishment of a State Industrial School and a State University.

During the legislative session of 1855, a revised school law was passed, embracing many invaluable provisions proposed in preceding attempts to secure the benefits of a thorough system of public schools, "free to the children of the people, and free from the influence of church or sect." The main features of this bill are retained in the school law of the present day.

In his fifth report, in 1856, Mr. Hubbs adverted to the lamentable fact, that, of the 26,170 resident children reported, only 6,422 formed

the average of daily attendance at the public schools of the State. In his final report, at the close of his term of office, he again urged the establishment of a University with an agricultural department, and of a Military School, the adoption, also, of a uniform system of elementary school books.

In 1857, the new Superintendent, Mr. Andrew J. Moulder, presented, in his first report, the sad fact, that, while the number of schools had increased within four years, nearly seven-fold, the number of teachers nearly nine-fold, the number of children more than three-fold, the semi-annual contribution by the State had dwindled to nearly one-half. In view of this fact, he urged the necessity of increasing the rate of county school tax, a more exact management of district funds, an appropriation for the support of teachers' institutes, and the establishment of a State Industrial school, of a Military Institute, and a University devoted chiefly to the training of engineers, miners, surveyors, geologists, metallurgists, chemists,—practical and scientific,—as best adapted to the immediate wants of California.

Mr. Moulder, in his annual report for 1858, deplored the inadequacy of all public measures as yet adopted for the effective operation of an appropriate school system throughout the State. In proof, he adverted to the glaring fact, that, of the upwards of forty thousand children of the school age, upwards of twenty thousand had not been inside of a public schoolhouse. As measures indispenable to amendment, he recommended that districts should be required to maintain a school for six instead of three months annually, that a better system for the examination of teachers be adopted, and that the county tax should be raised. In furtherance of needed improvement, he prepared a volume of commentaries on the school law of the State, together with suggestions on school architecture and methods of instruction.

In his report for 1859, Mr. Moulder recommended, among other measures of improvement, the establishment of a State normal school, the organization of State and County boards for examining teachers, a further increase of the rate of county school tax, an appropriation for State teachers' institutes, and for traveling expenses, enabling the Superintendent to deliver lectures and visit schools throughout the State. He urged, also, a consolidation of the township school funds into one common fund, as a measure indispensable to the successful operation of the State system of schools.

The State legislature of 1860 gave its sanction to many of the preceding suggestions, and, in particular, authorized the State Super-

intendent to appoint a State board of examination, empowered to grant teachers' certificates, valid for two years. County superintendents were also authorized to appoint county boards of examination, consisting exclusively of teachers, with power to grant teachers' certificates valid for one year. The State board of education was also authorized to adopt a State series of text books, and to enforce their adoption. An appropriation of $30.000 was also made for building a State reform school at Marysville.

By the school law of 1861, provision was made for the sale of "the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections" of school lands,—the proceeds to be deposited in the State school fund. The auspicious result was, that, in less than a year, nearly two hundred thousand acres were sold, and the proceeds deposited accordingly.

Tracing the progress annually made towards the effective advancement of the public-school system of California, we find the indefatigable State Superintendent, still urging the necessity of ampler provision to render the schools adequate to the work for which they were designed, asking for an appropriation of $5,000 for a State normal school; publishing the report of the committee on normal schools, appointed by the State Institute of May, 1861, which had been largely attended; reporting favorably on the results obtained by the action of state and county boards for the examination of teachers; asking for the re-enactment of a law requiring the adoption of a State series of school text-books, and for some provision for school libraries.

In 1862, the legislature passed an act establishing a State normal school in the city of San Francisco, and made an appropriation for that purpose, of $2,000. In his report for this year, Mr. Moulder recommended a measure of the utmost importance to the educational interests of the State, in his plan for funding the indebtedness of the State to the school fund. This measure was carried into effect by the legislative act of April 14th, 1863. By the provisions of this act, "the entire indebtednes of the state to the school fund, with the exception of $31,000, has been converted into State bonds at seven per cent. The total amount of the State school fund invested in State bonds, six hundred and fifty-one thousand dollars."

Mr. Moulder was succeeded in the office of State Superintendent of public instruction, January 1st, 1863, by Mr. John Swett, so well known to the friends of education throughout the State, as, for ten years, the efficient and successful principal of the Rincon Point school of San Francisco, and an able and distinguished pioneer in the cause of public instruction in California. His peculiar adaptation to the

duties of the honorable office which he now fills, was well known to the officers and students of the Normal Institute of Merrimack, N. H., where he pursued his professional studies with distinguished success; and to his instructors and class-mates, it has been a source of the highest gratification to watch the characteristic energy and efficiency with which he discharges the duties assigned him in his adopted State.

The constitutional amendments adopted by the people of the State of California, in 1862, having cut short his term of office from three years to eleven months, he was re-elected for a term of four years.

His first official report, (that for the year 1863, the thirteenth annual State document of that character,) embraced a mass of statistic material relating to the condition of schools aud the educational interests of the State, accompanied by a body of valuable suggestions for the guidance of teachers and officers in the various relations of instruction and administration. We quote from this report a few of its closing words:

"I have endeavored to set forth, in plain words, the defects and the wants of our public-school system. Could I have conscientiously done so, it would have been pleasanter to have found more to commend and less to censure; but unmerited laudation seldom effects needed reforms.

In entering upon another official term, of four years, I am able to comprehend, in some measure, the magnitude of the work to be done; and I assume the task in no spirit of self-confidence. Having devoted my whole life to the profession of teaching—having taught ten years in the public schools of this State—I have an ambition to co-operate with the many earnest and devoted teachers in California, who are striving to awaken public opinion to a truer estimate of the relation of free schools to the future permanence and prosperity of the State, and to a higher estimate of the profession of teaching."

A supplementary and amendatory bill, prepared by Superintendent Swett, and introduced in the Assembly, 1864, by Mr. J. J. Owen, chairman of the committee on education, contained the following among other provisions: "the levying of an annual State school tax of five cents on each hundred dollars of taxable property in the State, to be apportioned in the same manner as the interest of the State school fund; each county to levy a minimum county school tax, equal to two dollars for each child between four and eighteen years of age; the maximum rate of county tax allowed by law to be raised from the previous rate of 25 cents to 30 cents on each one hundred dollars; public-school trustees to levy a direct property tax sufficient to maintain a public school five months in each year, whenever the State and county school money shall be insufficient for that purpose; county superintendents to be authorized to subscribe for a sufficient number of copies of some State educational journal to furnish each board of

school trustees in the State with one copy, at an expense not exceeding one dollar a year."

The bill, of which the above were the prominent provisions, passed the Assembly without opposition, and the Senate by a handsome majority; and the beneficial results were fully evinced by the statistics given in the Biennial Report of the State Superintendent for the school years 1864 and 1865.

From this valuable document we extract the following condensed statement of the progress made in the system of public instruction in California during that period.

At the opening of this report I take pleasure in stating that the criticisms of 1863 no longer apply to our school system, and that the hope expressed in 1864, has been more than realized.

"Notwithstanding the school year closed before the bountiful harvests of the autumn were gathered, and while the State was still suffering from its previous financial prostration, the statistical returns exhibit an educational progress of which all Californians may well be proud."

This favorable statement Mr. Swett proceeds to verify by reference to the educational statistics of the year 1865, as exhibiting an increase of school money raised by taxation alone, over the preceding year, from three and seven-tenths per cent. to ninety-one and seven-tenths per cent., an increase of the average length of schools, equal to nearly one month, of teacher's salaries to sixty per cent.; the amount of school revenue raised to two dollars and fifty-eight cents per census child; of expenditures for school houses an increase of $164,000; of pupils attending the public schools sixteen per cent.; an increase in the number of free schools of seventy-eight in two years; a discontinuance of "rate bills," extending to half the number of children attending the public schools, the remainder paying an average tuition of twenty-five cents a month. Mr. Swett proceeds to say:

"But there is a vital and intangible aspect which no statistics can exhibit. The strong hold which the schools have taken on public opinion; the greater skill, earnestness, and ability of teachers; the improvement in methods of instruction and classification; the greater interest and enthusiasm of pupils, consequent upon the introduction of better books; the greater interest of parents; the civilizing agency of well conducted public schools in all the little communities of the State —these cannot be expressed in figures nor conveyed in words.

"California has taken her place in the front rank with those States whose material prosperity has been the result of public schools; and it is the duty of every legislator and and every statesman to strengthen and perfect a system of schools which shall educate a race of men and women for the next generation that shall inherit, with the boundless resources of the Golden State, something of the energy, enterprise, talent, character and intelligence which have settled and civilized it."

The Report comprises a mass of statistical and financial details of the highest value, but of which our limits do not admit even a synop-

sis. We restrict ourselves to some selections from the prominent topics of the volume which possess peculiar interest:

"In California, male teachers are paid only a fraction more than one-sixth higher monthly wages than female teachers.—I am proud of the fact that in this new State the rights of female teachers are thus regarded. I hope this may long continue, and that many schools now taught by men, will be placed under the instruction of refined, accomplished, intelligent and enthusiastic women.

"It has been my sanguine hope, for many years, that, in this new State, teaching might aspire to the dignity of a profession; that teachers might learn to combine their strength, respect themselves, command the respect of others, and honor their occupation. I have lived already to see the promise of the future. It has been and is my highest ambition to elevate the profession of teaching; for I well know that in no other way can the public schools be made the great educators of the State and the Nation. If the citizens of this State desire to have good schools, they must pay professionally trained teachers high salaries. If they want talent, they must buy it."

Educational Diplomas.—"The provision for State educational diplomas was eminently wise and judicious. More than a hundred teachers have secured such certificates, and none have dishonored them. It has done much to foster a spirit of professional pride, and to raise the standard of qualification at the county examinations."

By the "Revised School Law," approved March 24th, 1866, professional diplomas are classified as conferred by State, county, and city boards of examination.

State Diplomas and Certificates. These professional documents, so valuable alike as pledges of confidence and respect, on the part of the community, as recognizing the value of the teacher's office, and of security to parents and guardians for the competency of individuals to fulfill the duties of the profession, have been too long withheld from the many worthy and accomplished men who have devoted their lives to the vocation of teaching. California thus justly claims the honor of being the first State to confer distinct professional recognition on teachers, as a body pursuing a useful and honorable occupation, well entitled to a definite rank in society.

The revised school law, "section 86," provides for a State board of examination, to consist of the Superintendent of public instruction, as chairman, and four professional teachers appointed by him; the board to hold two sessions each year, and confer certificates of the following grades: State certificates, "first grade," valid for four years; "second grade," valid for two years; "third grade," valid for one year. "Section 87" requires that every applicant for a State diploma, or for a certificate of the "first" or "second" grade, be "critically examined, by written or printed questions, and by additional or oral examination, in algebra, arithmetic, English grammar, English composition, geography, history of the United States, school law of California, physiology, natural philosophy, orthography, de-

fining, penmanship, constitution and government of the United States, reading and elocution, and practice of teaching." Extra credits may be given for ability to teach drawing, vocal and instrumental music, and school calisthenics. For success and experience in teaching, extra credits may be allowed, as the State board of education may determine. "Certificates" shall be isssued to such persons only as, in addition to passing examination in the studies herein specified, shall have given evidence of good moral character and fitness for the profession of teaching. State educational "diplomas" shall be issued to such persons only as shall have been employed in the occupation of teaching at least three years; and the holders of said diplomas shall be eligible to teach in any public school in the State, except high schools in which the ancient and modern languages are required to be taught by such teachers. State "certificates" of the "first" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in county schools of the first grade, and in all grammar schools. State "certificates" of the "second" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in second grade schools, and as assistants in grammar schools. State "certificates" of the "third" grade shall entitle the holders to teach in any primary school. The State board of examination shall have power to revoke for immoral or unprofessional conduct, or habitual profanity, intemperance, cruelty, or evident unfitness for the profession of teaching, any diploma or certificate granted by it, and to renew all State certificates at the expiration of the time for which they were granted."

"Section 88," provides that "all regularly issued State normal school diplomas from any State normal school in the United States, and all life diplomas granted by the State board of examination in any of the United States, shall he recognized by the State board of education of this State, as *prima facie* evidence of fitness for the profession of teaching; and the said board shall, on application of the holders thereof, proceed to issue, without examination, State certificates; the grade to be fixed at the option of the board, *provided*, in all cases, satisfactory evidence be given of good moral character and correct habits. All applicants for State diplomas or certificates, shall pay an examination fee of two dollars, which shall be appropriated to the support of the State Educational Journal."

"Section 89," proceeds thus: "In order to elevate the profession of teaching and advance the interests of public schools, the State board of education shall grant teachers' life diplomas, which shall remain valid during the life of the holder, unless revoked by the said board for immoral or unprofessional conduct, or want of qual-

ifications to teach. Said diploma shall be granted to such persons only as shall have taught one year successfully after receiving a State educational diploma from the State board of examination, or who shall have held for one year, after receiving a State diploma, the office of State, county, or city superintendent. Applicants for life diplomas shall file with the State board of examination, certificates of their success in teaching; and said board, after due consideration and examination, shall present the application to the State board of education, with a recommendation either for or against its being granted. The State board of education may recognize the life diplomas of other States of the United States, and issue to the holders thereof life diplomas of this State. Each applicant for a State life diploma shall pay the sum of five dollars to defray the expense of filling out and issuing the diploma."

The close attention to details in these enactments, indicates the careful consideration with which the measures contemplated have been prepared. The results already secured place the State of California on high vantage ground, as a field of educational labor, inviting the attention of all worthy candidates for the office of teachers; and the State cannot fail to reap a rich reward for the noble spirit of enterprise which, in this respect, it has manifested. Its popular designation, "the Golden State," will, ere many years shall have elapsed, bear a new and higher meaning, referring to "riches that perish not with the using." In coming years, the other and older States in which but a partial progress has as yet been made toward the results already secured in California, will gratefully acknowledge the benefits derived from the influence of her example."

The limits necessarily set to a single article in this Journal, preclude the introduction of much valuable matter which we should be glad to transfer to our pages. We can at present attempt no more than a brief mention of prominent topics presented in the revised school law from which our preceding extracts have been made.

2. ABSTRACT OF REVISED SCHOOL LAW OF 1866.

"Section 1," prescribes that "there shall be a STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, which shall consist of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, the principal of the State normal school, the superintendent of public schools of the city and county of San Francisco, the superintendents of common schools of the respective counties of Sacramento, Santa Clara, and San Joaquin, and of two professional teachers, who shall be nominated by the superintendent of public instruction, and elected by and with the advice of said board, *provided*, that no teacher shall be eligible to such election unless he is a holder of a State educa-

tional diploma." "The governor shall be the president, and the superintendent of public instruction the secretary of the board." "No member of said board shall receive any compensation for his services."

"Sec. 2," enacts that "the State board of education shall have power to adopt a course of study, and rules and regulations for all public schools in the State, *provided*, that such rules shall not be enforced in conflict with special rules and regulations adopted by the board of education of any city, or any city and county; to adopt and prescribe regulations and a list of books suitable for school district libraries; to grant teachers' life diplomas,, and prescribe regulations for the examination of teachers by State, city or county boards of examination; to adopt a uniform system of text books to be used in all public schools; to have and use a common seal; and to authorize the printing, by the State printer, of all regulations and circulars necessary to carry their provisions into effect."

"Sec. 3," provides that "the SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION shall, at the special election for judicial officers, to be held in the year 1867, and every four years thereafter at such special election, be elected by the qualified voters of the State, and shall enter upon the duties of his office on the first day of December next after his election. He shall be paid a salary of $3000.00 per annum, and shall have power to appoint a clerk, who shall be paid a salary of $1800.00 per annum, and who shall be authorized to act as deputy superintendent."

By "Sec. 4." it is made the duty of the Superintendent to "*report to the governor biennially* on the first of November of the years in which the regular session of the Legislature is held." This section of the school law provides in detail for the transmission of the report to the legislature, for its appropriate distribution to official persons, to district libraries, for the depositing of copies in the State library, &c. The report, it is enacted, "shall contain a statement of the condition of public schools in the State, full statistical tables, by counties, showing the number of school children in the State, the number attending public schools and the average attendance, the number attending private schools, and the number not attending school;" the apportionment of the State school fund, together with the other sources of revenue for school purposes; "the amount expended for salaries of teachers, and for building school houses; a statement of plans for the management and improvement of schools; a statement of the condition of the State normal school, of the State agricultural college, of all incorporated literary institutions required to report to him; of the educational departments of the State reform school, the asylum for the deaf and dumb and blind, and the several orphan asylums, and other educational institutions to which State appropriations may be made."

"Sec. 5," makes provision for *the apportionment*, by the superintendent, to the several school districts, counties, and cities, *of the school moneys*, according to the data of the State Controller's report. "Sec. 6," prescribes the preparation by the superintendent, of "*suitable printed forms* for making all reports and conducting all necessary proceedings under the revised school law," including forms of diplomas, certificates, and school registers; the printing, in pamphlet form, of all school laws, with the requisite forms for making reports and conducting school business; the course of study, rules and regulations, and list of text books and library books, adopted and prescribed by the State board of education, together with "such suggestions on school architecture as he may deem useful."

"Sec. 8," requires of the superintendent that he shall, as ex-officio, one of the

trustees of such institutions, visit and report on *the asylum for the deaf and dumb and blind, the State reform school and orphan asylums*, with reference to their modes of management and systems of instruction.

"Sec. 9," requires of the superintendent "that he devote four months of each year for the purpose of visiting schools throughout the State, consulting with county superintendents, lecturing before county institutes, and addressing public assemblies on subjects pertaining to public schools."

We add a few brief extracts regarding the office of "COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF COMMON SCHOOLS."

These officers are to "be elected in each county at the general election in 1867 and every two years thereafter," to "take office on the first Monday of March next succeeding their election, and hold for two years." The revised school law makes it the duty of each county superintendent *to "apportion all school moneys to the school districts* as soon as practicable after the State apportionment has been made, and to make quarterly apportionments thereafter."

"Sec. 16," of the revised school law empowers and requires each county superintendent as follows: 1. "*To visit each school in his county* at least once a year; 2, *to distribute promptly all reports, forms, laws, circulars, and instructions*, which he may receive for the use of school officers, from the department of instruction or the State board of education; 4, *to preside over county teachers' institutes;* 5, to *enforce the course of study and the use of text-books* adopted by the State board of education; 6, to enforce the rules and regulations required in *the examination of teachers;* 7, to keep on file and preserve in his office the *biennial reports* of the superintendent of public instruction, and a file of the *State Educational Journal*, adopted in pursuance of law; 8, to keep a *record of his official acts* and of the acts of the county board of examination; 9, *to carefully preserve all reports of school officers and teachers*," and other official documents, "and at the close of his official term to deliver them to his successor."

"Sec. 17," secures a compliance with these requisitions, by a penalty of forfeiture of $100.00 from the official salary, in case of failure.

By "Sec. 20," the county superintendent is authorized to require of the trustees of school districts *to see to all proper repairs*, and other arrangements for decency and comfort regarding the condition of school buildings, and, in case of neglect on their part, to see all requisite arrangements made at the expense of the given district.

"Sec. 21, makes it the duty of the county superintendent, whenever the number of school districts in any county is ten or more, to hold at least *one teachers' institute in each year*, and of every teacher employed in a public school in the county, to attend every such institute, and participate in its proceedings. Each session of such institute to continue not less, than three nor more than five days; and the superintendent to secure, if practicable, lecturers and instructors competent to instruct teachers in the theory and practice of teaching."—In the words of this section of the revised school law, "Every board of trustees and every board of education shall not only allow but shall require the teachers in its employ to attend every teachers' institute held in the county; and when the institute is held during the time that teachers may be employed in teaching, their pay shall not be diminished by reason of attendance on such institute. For the payment of the expenses of the institute, a sufficient sum, not exceeding one hundred dollars in any one year, shall be paid, on the warrant of the superintendent, out of the unapportioned county school fund."

"Sec. 22," makes a judicious provision for securing *appropriate school buildings*, by requiring of each county superintendent that he shall furnish his office with such works on school architecture as may be prescribed by the State board of education; that no school house shall be erected unless the trustees first submit the plan to the county superintendent; and that in all plans, regard shall, as far as practicable, be had to "taste convenience, durability, and economy."

Under the head of "SCHOOL ELECTIONS AND TRUSTEES," "Sec. 35," provides that "an annual school meeting for the election of *school trustees* shall be held in each district on the last Saturday of June in each year;" "the election to be conducted, as far as practicable, in the form and manner of the general election."

"Sec. 36," regulates the *term of office of trustees*, requiring that "in all organized districts in which elections have been previously held, one trustee shall be elected for the term of three years, and if there are vacancies to be filled, a sufficient number to fill them for the unexpired terms." "In new districts, acting under trustees appointed by the county superintendent, three trustees shall be elected for one, two, and three years respectively."

"Sec. 39," requires that "each board of trustees shall, within ten days after the annual election," "proceed to elect one of their number *clerk of the board*, who shall be known and referred to as 'district clerk,' whose duty it shall be to record all proceedings of the board," and to keep an accurate account of all receipts and expenditures of school moneys.

"Sec. 30," authorizes the people of the district to vote, at the annual election for trustees, *a tax* not exceeding half a mill on the dollar of the taxable property of the district, for the purpose of paying any debt of the district, or for a school library, or for furniture and apparatus.

"Sec. 42," empowers and requires every board of trustees and any board of education to *employ and dismiss teachers*, and to fix, alter, and order paid their *salaries* and compensations; to make and enforce rules for *the government of schools, pupils, and teachers*, and to enforce *the course of study* prescribed in the State law; to provide and pay for, out of the school moneys, *school furniture and apparatus*; to *suspend or expel pupils* from school; *to provide books for indigent children;* to require all pupils to be furnished with *suitable books;* to provide *library and cabinet cases;* to enforce the exclusive use of *the State series of text books*, and *the course of study* prescribed by the State board of education; *to require teachers to attend county or city institutes*, and to make such *annual reports* as may be required by the superintendent of public instruction.

In these and other requisitions, the thorough-going strictness of the revised law, in its practical details, commends itself to the hearty approbation of every mind well informed on topics connected with the value and actual working of a State system judiciously adopted to common schools.

"Sec. 44," authorizes boards of trustees and boards of education to grade and organize their schools into *primary, grammar*, and *high* school departments as circumstances, in each case, may require; preference, however, being always given to the adequate support of primary schools.

"Sec. 61," ordains that, for the purpose of protecting *the health of young children*, no school for children under *eight* years of age shall be continued in session more than *four hours a day*, exclusive of intermission, and *no school whatever* more than *six* hours a day, exclusive of an intermission at noon.

"Sec. 62," requires that "all *pupils* admitted into public schools shall *comply*

with the regulations established in pursuance of law for the government of such schools, shall pursue *the required course of study*, and shall *submit to the authority of the teachers* of such schools. Continued and willful disobedience, and open defiance of the authority of the teacher, shall constitute good cause for *expulsion* from school; and habitual profanity and 'vulgarity,' good cause for *suspension* from school. Any pupil who shall in any way cut, deface, or otherwise injure any school house, fences or outbuildings thereof, shall be liable to suspension and punishment; and the parents of such pupils shall be liable for damages, on complaint of the teacher or trustees."

The youth of California will thus, we may hope, be saved from the sarcasms hitherto so justly leveled at the Yankee and his whittling propensities.

Among the salutary regulations adopted for the guidance of TEACHERS, the revised law requires that every teacher shall make *an annual report* to the county superintendent, in the form and manner and on the blanks prescribed by the superintendent, as a condition of receiving the last month's stipulated compensation for his or her services. The same condition applies to the proper keeping of *a school register* in the form prescribed by the State.

"Sec. 65" provides that "no teacher shall be entitled to draw for salary any school moneys, unless such teacher shall be employed by *a majority of the trustees*, nor unless the holder of a legal *State, city, or county teachers' certificate* in full force and effect."

The youthful and vigorous State of California has not, it would seem, been troubled with seeing "a lion in the path" of improvement, as regards the matter of professional diplomas. In this respect she has set a worthy example to some of her older sisters, who have labored under the apprehension which Solomon speaks of as characterizing a certain class of persons.

A valuable security is provided for all California teachers, in "Section 66" of the revised school law, which limits a school month to *twenty* school days, or four weeks of *five* school days each, and exempts all teachers from professional labor on the annual recurrence of the Fourth of July, the First of January, Christmas day, the days of special and judicial election, and such days of fasting or thanksgiving as may be appointed by the President of the United States, or the Governor of California.

"Sec. 67," deals successfully with matters which have been found exceedingly troublesome in other States. It provides that every teacher shall have power to hold every pupil to *a strict accountability*, in school, for any disorderly conduct on the way to or from school, or on the play grounds of the school, or during intermission or recess; *to suspend from school* any pupil for good cause, *provided*, that such suspension shall be reported by the teacher to the trustees as soon as practicable; and if such action is not sustained by them, the teacher may appeal to the county superintendent, whose decision shall be final, whether for or against expulsion.

"Secs. 68 and 69," confer on teachers, in case of revocation of certificate or of dismissal, the right of *appeal to the State board of examination, or to the State board of education.*

"Sec. 70," repeats, in spirit, the noble sentiments of the Fathers of New England, regarding the obligation of teachers as to *moral instruction*. "It shall be the duty of all teachers to endeavor to impress on the minds of their pupils the

principles of morality, worth, justice, and patriotism; to teach them to avoid idleness, profanity, and falsehood; and to instruct them in the principles of a free government, and to train them up to a true comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of American citizenship."

"Sec. 77," appropriates $16,000 each year to support a State Normal School, under the management of a Board of Trustees, consisting of the members of the State Board of Education, (except the Principal of the school, who is *ex-officio*, a member of the Board of Education). Of these Trustees, the Superintendent is executor, agent and secretary, who must visit the school, enforce rules of the Board, and require monthly reports of the teachers. It is made the duty of the Principal to submit a detailed report, which, if printed, he must forward a copy to each Normal School in the United States. He must attend and lecture to County Institutes on matters relating to public-schools, and the profession of teaching.

"Sec. 78," authorizes and directs each County Superintendent, and County Treasurer to set apart ten per cent. of each annual apportionment, (to the extent of fifty dollars,) from "District School Library Fund," to be expended with such sums as may be added thereto by subscription or donation, for the purchase of such books as shall be authorized by the State Board of Education. In cities and towns not districted, the sum of $50 for every five hundred children between the ages of five and fifteen years, must be set apart and expended.

"Sec. 84," makes it the duty of the Superintendent to subscribe annually for a Monthly Journal of Education, for each county and city Superintendent, and for each District Clerk and school library, in which Journal there must be a department devoted to the official circular, instructions and decisions of the State school officers.

"Sec. 85," instructs the State Superintendent to convene, annually, a State Teachers' Institute, to continue in session from three to five days, and appropriates $500 for the necessary expenses of the same.

"Sec. 86," constitutes the State Superintendent, and four professional teachers a State Board of Examination, with power to hold two sessions annually, and to grant State Certificates for six, four, two and one year; the County Superintendent, and the teachers associated with himself, a County Board of Examination; and the City Superintendent and the President of the Board of Education of each city, and three public school teachers holding a State diploma of such city, elected by the city Board of Education—a city Board of Examination.—Each Board of Examination can issue Diplomas which shall be valid within their respective territorial limits, for such period and time, as shall be expressed therein.

"Sec. 96," levies and directs to be collected and paid in the same manner as other State Taxes, an annual ad valorem tax of eight cents on each one hundred dollars value of all taxable property throughout the State. The Board of Supervisors of each county shall annually levy a school tax of at least thirty-five cents for each one hundred dollars, or three dollars for each child in the county between the ages of five and fifteen. There is nothing so liberal in the way of school taxation in any other State in the world.

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWEDEN.

OUTLINE OF SYSTEM AND STATISTICS.

THE system of Public Instruction in Sweden, consists of—I. Two Universities; II. Secondary Schools, Grammar Schools, and Practical Schools; III. Primary Schools, or schools for the people.

I. There are two universities, Upsula, with an average attendance of 1000 students, and Lund, with about 450 students. At the head of each university is the Chancellor, who is always a person of rank, elected by the professors and confirmed by the king. The present Crown Prince holds this office in both institutions. The professors embrace the four faculties—theology, law, medicine, and philosophy. To each faculty belong a number of stipendiary professors and assistant lecturers. Attendance on the lectures is not compulsory on the students. nor are they required to remain for any specified time. Every candidate for any degree conferred by the university, must pass a satisfactory examination.

II. Secondary instruction is given in "Schools of Learning" (Lardams Skola) and Gymnasia. The former, is a lower grade of Gymnasium. Both are classical schools; and in the two, the pupils are instructed in religion, geography, history, writing, mathematics, Latin and Greek, the German and French languages, and the elements of natural history. Besides these, there is a class of schools, called *Apologist Schools*, in which the course of instruction is as thorough as in the Gymnasium, except in the classics. According to an official report in 1843, there were twelve Gymnasia, forty-one Schools of Learning, forty Apologist Schools, and two Cathedral Schools, connected with the universities. All these institutions are almost entirely supported by the State; the government appropriating nearly $100,000 a year for salaries of teachers. In these schools the children of the gentry, governmental officials, and professional families, are educated, but are not closed to any child qualified to enter.

III. The government as early as 1684, in order to make the lowest form of instruction universal, ordered that before any person could be admitted to the rite of confirmation, (which was necessary to marriage,) the curate should be satisfied of his or her ability to read; and up to 1822, the peasantry of Sweden was thought to be the most intelligent in Europe. But in consequence of inquiries instituted about that time by a voluntary association, it was found that home and parochial school

education had been for a quarter of a century neglected, and in 1825 a a general system was introduced; but up to 1842, the establishment of schools had gone forward so slowly, that it became necessary to pass a law making it compulsory for every district to erect at least one school with an approved teacher.

Every parish is divided into districts, and whenever a districts does not contain population or wealth enough to maintain a permanent teacher, it is visited by an itinerating teacher, who is permanently employed by the school board of the parish, to teach at different periods of the year in different localities of the parish.

The school board consists of a chairman and committee elected by the district, whose duty it is to provide a school-house, and elect and employ teachers. Each teacher is entitled to a minimum salary, consisting of sixteen barrels of corn, lodging, firewood, pasture, food for one cow, and small piece of land to cultivate for a garden. If the district can not furnish this, the government makes a grant in aid.

The course of instruction comprises religion, geography, Swedish and universal history, mathematics, geometry, natural history, music, and gymnastics. All children between the ages of nine and fifteen must attend school, unless it can be shown that they receive instruction at home. The Lancasterian, or mutual method of instruction, is very widely adopted.

The inspection of all the schools, belongs to the bishop and the chapter of the Cathedral. The school board of each district, makes an annual report of the state of the schools to the cathedral chapter of the diocese, by which body a report is forwarded every three years to the government. According to the last triennial report, (July, 1850,) the population of Sweden was 3,358,867; and of this number, the following children of the legal school age (over nine and under fifteen years) were receiving instruction as follows:—

1. In Primary Schools—stationary,	boys,	81,422
" " "	girls,	62,104
2. In Primary Schools—ambulatory,	boys,	67,120
" " " "	girls,	59,058
3. Secondary Schools,	boys,	6,223
4. Private Institutions,	boys,	7,087
" "	girls,	10,377
5. Educated at home,	boys,	55,827
" " "	girls,	73,169
6. In Sunday Schools,	boys,	13,177
" " "	girls,	12,541

The number of masters employed by the school board in stationary schools, was 2,107; and in ambulatory schools 1,351, of whom 218 were clergymen, and 690 church organists.

By the act of 1842, a Normal School or Seminary for the training of teachers was instituted. The pupils receive a fixed salary for their support from the government, in consideration of which, they obligate themselves to teach for at least three years in the primary schools.

V. STUDY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY REV. HENRY N. DAY, D. D.

COMPOSITION, OR THE ART OF THINKING, AND EXPRESSING THOUGHTS CORRECTLY AND EFFECTIVELY IN SPOKEN OR WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

THROUGHOUT the whole range of educational discussion there is, at the present time, no question more importunately demanding investigation than this:—How should composition be taught in our schools and seminaries, our academies and colleges? It is safe to say that in no other department of instruction is there equal deficiency and failure; in no other department is there equal ignorance of what a proper mode of teaching and learning is; in no other, is there equal dissatisfaction with results on the part of both teacher and pupil. Yet if the culminating object and aim in intellectual culture be power to think and to speak and write correctly and effectively, that department of instruction which aims directly at the development of this power should outrank all others in importance.

Composing is as properly an art as is ciphering. It is, to say the least, as difficult an art; and, certainly, if the true end and object of all education be had in view, it must be admitted to be deserving equal time, equal care and labor—equal consideration every way on the part of teacher and pupil. What now would be thought of a system of education which should treat ciphering—arithmetical computation, as composition-writing is generally treated in our institutions of learning, higher and lower? Suppose in our schools the requisition should be given out, without any preparatory instruction, without a hint or suggestion otherwise, that every pupil should on every Wednesday afternoon, or on the Wednesdays of alternate weeks, present a ciphering. Pupils that had witnessed such spectacles before,—the others would probably be excused at the first performance,—might have, we may conjecture, a shadowy notion of what was intended in the requisition. Such, we may suppose, if at least they were faithful and eager to learn, would come, after racking their brains through all the leisure hours of the week, and torturing parents, brothers, and sisters at home, and older fellow-pupils at school, on the dreaded Wednesday afternoon with a ciphering to be

exhibited. The older performers would present, perhaps, a long sum in division; and the younger would hope to satisfy conscience and the teacher with some rows of figures well-formed and properly arranged. The ciphering papers after having been read amid the blushes, the tremblings, the falterings of the performers, should be gathered up by the teacher to be scrutinized, corrected, and marked in respect of merit. The corrections should consist of some marks of a pen or pencil to the effect that this figure is not perfectly formed; that a sign of subtraction is omitted here, or the wrong sign for addition placed there; that here the horizontal, and there the perpendicular row of figures is not straight and true; that this figure is placed one degree too far to the right, and that, one degree too far to the left; that the sum of these two figures, or the difference between those two is not correctly stated; and should be indicated through some conventional signs on the ciphering paper, and then be returned to the pupil with no further word of instruction or explanation. Suppose the whole course of instruction, from beginning to end, should be made up of these Wednesday afternoon presentations and these penciled criticisms. What kind of arithmeticians should we expect from such teaching and training? How much satisfaction would be felt with such instruction in ciphering by teacher or by pupil? Would utter disgust with the whole procedure be strange or unreasonable? And yet is this any caricature of composition-teaching in many, if not in most schools?

In some cases, it is true, the teacher tries to do something more. A theme is proposed, or a list of themes from which one is to be selected by the pupil. This would be perfectly paralleled in teaching arithmetic by the teacher's giving out a line or lines of figures on which the pupil should cipher and bring in at the Wednesday presentation, ciphering papers with these figures ciphered out—nothing being indicated as to any process or any result; whether the figures are to be added or subtracted; whether multiplied or divided, or what was definitely to be done with the figures. In fact, as to any previous teaching in any way, the pupil should be left in utter ignorance what multiplication or even addition is, or how to be performed. His task should be not to add specifically, not to multiply, not to compute interest,—not to perform any arithmetical process in particular, much less attain any result as the amount due on a promissory note bearing interest, or the cost of commodity at so much a yard, or pound, or bushel; but only to bring in a ciphering paper. This paper must have a certain number of figures on it perhaps; the figures must

be well formed, well arranged; if addition or division is ventured on, the sum or the quotient must be placed below or at the right hand, and the signs must be correctly placed. But any process is admissible, and no criticism or instruction as to the nature of the process should ever find entrance into the method of teaching. This is no caricature of a mode of teaching composition when more than ordinary care and interest are taken in it by the teacher. Is it strange that the writing of compositions is turned away from in disgust and inexpressible aversion? that in the views of so many judicious teachers the practice should be condemned and reprobated?

Composing is as perfectly an art as ciphering—as computation. As an art it necessarily implies that something is to be done under intelligible guidance; something to be done for some definite intelligible object; something to be done in some rational way that can be pointed out. As an art it admits of guiding principles and rules that must regulate the whole procedure in order that it may be successful;—in order that that which it proposes to have done, may be done well. Like ciphering, composing is an art, that, as applicable to a great diversity of uses, embraces a great diversity of processes. These processes are widely diverse from one another, as much so as are addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as are evolution, involution, reduction of fractions, computation of interest, mensuration of surfaces and solids. It is just as irrational to attempt to teach composition as to teach arithmetic simply by assigning general exercises without indication of the precise object to be accomplished and of the nature of the particular process by which that object is to be accomplished. It is just as irrational, thus, to require from every pupil on each alternate Wednesday a composition without further specification as to the object of the essay, and with no instruction as to the process to be applied as it would be to require a ciphering exercise without such specification and instruction, and with the expectation that alike in each case the pupil is to acquire the art simply by such a method. It is just as irrational to prescribe such a composition exercise even with the additional help of an assigned theme as it would be to give out an exercise in ciphering with only an assigned line of figures to cipher upon, and with no further teaching as to object or process.

In the acquisition of every art, as in all human culture, there is an indispensable condition prescribed in the very nature of the human mind as subject to *growth*. The mind begins in infantile weakness, and by slow and successive degrees only attains to full and perfect

maturity. All right teaching, every successful teacher must intelligently adopt this fundamental principle of growth and the method which it imposes. The pupil must be borne along from the simplest element of the art, step by step, one element at a time—in a steady unfolding of the art, to the goal of a perfect attainment of it. To effect this the teacher must know the path from the starting-point to the goal; must intelligently keep his pupil in this path and adapt his teaching to each successive stage of progress. The prevalent mode of teaching composition ignores and tramples on this fundamental law of culture. It knows no beginning, no ending; no starting-point, no goal. The beginner and the proficient are assigned the same exercise and receive the same instruction, whether it be preparatory, if indeed any such instruction be given at all, or whether it be in the way of criticism and correction of exercises already finished by the pupil.

The external condition of all culture, corresponding to this internal condition, is equally ignored and disregarded. This external condition prescribes that the pupil be guided by the teacher to the practice which the particular art involves. The pupil must be put on doing, and know from his teacher precisely what he is to do. There must be practice, and there must be instruction, rule, to guide that practice. This instruction and rule may be procured, indeed, from books as well as from the lips of the teacher. The text-book may be more or less in place of teacher. But the instruction, the rule must be given, or there must be blind groping, stumbling, failure, on the part of the learner.

The combination of these two conditions directs at once to the only method of teaching that can promise success;—that the pupil be led along, step by step, in clear instruction and firm guidance, practicing element after element in the art until each successively be mastered, from the simplest on to the most complicated procedures in the art. In this way, other arts, arithmetic, music, are now most successfully taught. In this way composition may be taught with equal success and with equal satisfaction to both teacher and learner.

We proceed now to indicate in detail how this tried and accepted method may be applied to the teaching of composition.

There are two very distinguishable stages in the acquisition of an art which a wise method will ever broadly discriminate. There is, first, the elemental stage. In arithmetic, it embraces what are called the ground rule—those of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, with the introductory rule of notation. In composition this

stage embraces the rules of sentence-construction proper, with the introductory rules, corresponding exactly to those of arithmetical notation, of capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing. This elemental stage is covered by the science of grammar, as it is ordinarily understood. The second stage embraces the various general processes in which these elemental processes are applied to some proposed object. Thus in arithmetic, we have the rules of proportion, evolution, involution, reduction of fractions, and the like. In composition we have the rules of discourse proper, which are embraced in more or less perfect form in our familiar rhetorical treatises.

Now as in learning arithmetic, the pupil should first be put upon learning the ground-rules, after beginning with some rudimentary study of notation, and should learn successively each rule by itself, so in learning to speak and write he should begin with the rudimental principles of rhetorical notation, so to call it, embracing capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing, and then learn separately and successively the several parts of sentence-construction proper. And here experience prompts the remark that two or three thoroughly taught lessons in these rules of rhetorical notation, at the very beginning, will save teacher and pupil incalculable trouble in the further practice of writing, as well as be of inestimable service in working into the mind of the pupil that most vital condition of successful writing —the idea of a progress by stages in all correct discourse.

With the rudiments of what may figuratively be called rhetorical notation—of capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing—familiarly and thoroughly mastered, the pupil is prepared to begin upon the simplest element in sentence-construction.

But here it becomes necessary to take up and carry with us a correct and also a clear notion of what sentence-construction is—of what we do when we construct a sentence, in order to determine what is the first and simplest element, and what are the successive, more complicated elements in their proper order, and also in order to determine how we are to deal with each. When we construct a sentence then we put a thought into appropriate words, as in constructing discourse we put thought into words for some proposed rational object. We have then in all composition two elements to deal with—the thought and the word—and of these elements the thought is the important element, the vital, the properly organic element. We use the word but for the thought's sake. Nay, the thought has determined the shape and character of the word itself; the particular thought-form has created and shaped the particular word-form. To

teach composition, to teach sentence-construction by limiting the views of the learner to the word, while excluding or even relatively depressing the thought, is preposterous, is fatal, as much so as it would be to teach arithmetic in such a way as to make the pupil think that figure-making is all there is in ciphering. The quantity denoted by the figure, the thought expressed in the word, must ever be kept prominent, and be treated as the vital and organic element. The pupil must first understand what he is to express, what he is to say or write, then seek for the proper mode of expression. In other words, in any true method of learning composition, the thought-form must first be studied, then the word-form which language has provided for the embodiment or expression of that thought-form.

Beginning with the most elemental thought-form, the pupil should be conducted step by step successively through each of the great elemental thought-forms as they are now presented to us in our more matured systems of logic, with their various modifications so far at least as they determine peculiar forms of words, and in such a way that he shall attain a familiar practical mastery of those elemental forms of thought in connection with those word-forms which language has appropriated to each respectively. Logic has now given us the exact enumeration of these general thought-forms, and the distinctive characters that belong to each, together with the principles that determine all the general modifications of these general thought-forms. It is now practicable, consequently, to found all the forms of word-expression as given us in grammar in their proper thought-forms, and thus to present the whole subject of sentence-construction in the clearest, exactest scientific method. Not only this, but the recent advances in logical science enable us to account for the rise of the particular word-forms which it is the province of grammar to enumerate and explain, and to set forth the reasons why these forms of words, these parts of speech, are such as they are and not different. In short, in the light which is now shed upon the nature and forms of our thinking, grammatical science is enabled to unfold all its principles and explain all its forms by a clear reference to the nature of the thought which underlies and determines, or to speak more significantly, which organizes all language.

It is pertinent here to introduce a word or two in reference to the proper relation of the study of grammar to training in composition-writing. Our systems of grammar are all *sciences* of language, not proper *arts*. A proper art aims definitely at *doing, producing, constructing* something. Its characteristic method is the synthetic, the

constructive method. It fastens on the essential faculty concerned in the art, as for instance, the faculty of song, the faculty of computation, the faculty of thinking, the faculty of discoursing, or the like, and develops that faculty by appropriate practice in successive processes involved in the art, proceeding from the more elemental to the more complicated. A science aims at explaining, informing, enlightening the intelligence. Its characteristic method is the analytic. It fastens upon the product, the result, and separating it into convenient parts, explains the nature or describes the elements of each of these parts successively. Our grammatical treatises, thus, take language as a product, a result. They dissect it into its parts and treat distinctly of sentences, their kinds and characters, of parts of speech, their number, characteristics, modifications, and the like.

Now such grammars, such scientific treatises on language, are doubtless very useful and very valuable. Language, as the product of the legitimate workings of the human mind, of the proper rational life, is as worthy of scientific study as are fruits, or foliage, or the products of vegetable life. So grammars of particular languages, grammars of the Greek, of the Latin, of any foreign language, where not the use of the language in speaking or writing but a mere knowledge of it is chiefly aimed at, are of inestimable value and worth. But although unquestionably valuable auxiliaries to a correct and facile use of a language in actual conversation or discourse, they never suffice to this end. Probably few among our best scholars would venture writing or speaking in a foreign dialect of which they might have attained the completest mastery as to its characters and forms, unless after a special training. From the very nature of the case we should anticipate such a result from the study of grammar as a science and not as an art, as was at a recent state convention of teachers acknowledged by one of the body in his somewhat paradoxical statement that "no man or woman ever learned to speak or write the English language from the instruction he or she received in grammar in school; it can not be done." That the study of grammar as generally taught has some utility, it is unreasonable to doubt. It gives at least some knowledge of the nature of language. But it would be quite as unreasonable to expect from such a study the attainment of much power or skill in the use of the language—in speaking or writing it—in the construction of discourse.

It will not probably be denied by any that the great end in studying every vernacular language should be to acquire the power to use the language correctly and effectively. This is not the end generally

proposed in studying foreign languages; especially is it not the commanding end in the study of the Greek and the Latin languages. The grammars of these languages have not been constructed with reference to that end, but almost exclusively with reference to the power of interpreting the literature of the Greeks and the Romans, not to skill of authorship in these languages. But these grammars of the classical tongues have been the models and patterns after which our vernacular grammars have been designed and elaborated. They are, accordingly, sciences of the language, not arts. But what is most needed in the study of the English language with us, and especially in our public schools and seminaries, is that which is properly to be taught as an *art* of English discourse, and the whole procedure in the construction of a suitable text-book should be the reverse of that in a science—the reverse of that adopted in our classical grammars. It should be, as already indicated, in the synthetic method, proceeding from element to element in systematic order, with suitable practice on each in succession till it is thoroughly mastered for use. The difference between the two modes may be well exemplified in the study of arithmetic as a science or as an art. Let a pupil study arithmetic as a proper science,—in the form, for instance, in which it is unfolded in the publications of the Society for the diffusion of useful knowledge; let him perfectly master every principle and understand every doctrine thoroughly of arithmetical science as there so ably set forth. He would not yet be able to solve a very slightly complicated problem in Proportion with all such scientific knowledge. A skill, a tact is requisite which no mere scientific knowledge can impart. He might understand all the principles of computation, and yet not be able to compute so as to compete with any school-boy.

It is still true that a good practical arithmetician ought to understand the science that underlies his art, and, in like manner, the student in composition ought to understand grammar as a science—ought to be versed in the principles of the language. English grammar ought then to be taught in all our schools as a true art—as an art constructed on truly scientific grounds, but shaped and developed throughout, not as a science but as an art, just as arithmetic is in fact. It should be learned in learning to compose. In fact, a true art of composition is nothing but grammar regarded as an art. In this way of learning, not only would what should be the great commanding end in the study of grammar, viz: skill in speaking and writing, be best attained; but in connection with this, the science itself of the language, which is all that is proposed in our ordinary grammatical

treatises, would also be acquired. Moreover, the study itself, instead of being as now a disgust and a drudgery, would be made most attractive and interesting, because its utility would be seen in every step of the study; and likewise, the grounds and reasons for all grammatical teachings would be brought into clear light. Pursued scientifically, that is analytically and from the word-form, the study must ever remain dry and forbidding, and therefore comparatively unprofitable to the immature mind, unequal to scientific speculations. Pursued as an art from the thought as the organic principle of language, all becomes clear and the developing mind moves on in sympathy with the developing art.

This, then, is the proper mode of teaching composition in its first stage of proper sentence-construction. After a suitable drilling in rhetorical notation—in capitalizing, punctuation, and paragraphing,—the pupil should be exercised on each general form of thought successively in connection with the appropriate form of word which language has provided for that form of thought. He should be trained in suitable exercises copiously provided for the purpose, precisely as is done in our best arithmetics under each rule, on each leading modification of these general forms of thought with the particular word-form which language has for each. This will take him through all the principles—through the science of grammar, although skill, not mere knowledge, has been the one commanding aim in the study. He will have acquired, thus, not merely science, but what is incomparably more valuable, skill in thinking, skill in expression. His attention having been directed on the thought as the controlling element in speaking and writing, he will not only have received a most valuable training in the power to deal with thought, and a most valuable training in the command of verbal expression; but he will, in addition, have been led along a path in which he must have ever been constrained to look out understandingly upon the true relationship between thought and language. He will be in no danger of coming gradually to sink thought in words, to mistake learned terms, brilliant images, rounded periods for good writing;—in no danger of "growing in expression and dwindling in notion," to use the pithy language of Berkeley, as he is in the study of grammar and of rhetoric in the manner usually pursued. The thought to be expressed will be to him the main thing; and the verbal expression will be to him good or poor according as it well or ill embodies the thought to be expressed. He will relish criticism; he will understand and appreciate criticism, as he will have been trained ever to be looking for the appropriate verbal embodiment of the thought.

The second grand stage in the art of composing is that in which the rational object for which we speak or write comes in for distinct and prominent treatment. The pupil has now passed the proper elemental stage—the stage analogous to that covered by the four ground rules of arithmetic; he is supposed to have mastered by sufficient practice on each elementary process the entire art of sentence-construction. He is now to be trained in the art of constructing discourse, which employs the rules of sentence-construction as Proportion and Evolution employ the four ground rules of arithmetic. Now in discourse, as in arithmetical computation, there are divers specific objects to be accomplished, and there are accordingly divers processes to be used in accomplishing these objects. The pupil, then, is first to have the idea of an object in his writing fixed firmly and controllingly in his mind. This is vital. It is chiefly because no distinct object is before his mind in writing compositions as prescribed in our schools and colleges, that these exercises are to the learner so repulsive and so unprofitable. Nothing is more repulsive to a rational spirit than an objectless task. The same exercise that without conscious object would be the most disgusting drudgery, will be prosecuted with bounding enthusiasm when inspired by an apprehended object in it. A single fact will illustrate this general remark. In one of our leading colleges, a student, otherwise faithful and exemplary, as well as highly successful in his studies, from his invincible repugnance to composition-writing, had worked up to his third year, shirking every exercise assigned to him. At last, after repeated censures, the alternative had to be met of performance or dismission. He told his class-officer that, painful as it was, the latter must be his fate, for to write a composition was to him an utter impossibility. He was told to go out on a walk for a half hour; to note prominent objects and occurrences along his way; and then to go to his room and put down on paper a narrative of what he had noticed in just the order he had observed them, and just as they had impressed him. He complied. He brought the written narrative to his instructor. It was an acceptable performance of the task assigned. The fatal charm was now broken. To write a composition was to narrate—to communicate one's own thoughts to another. He became conscious of an object—a rational aim in writing. He soon rose to be one of the best writers in his class; and his name now ranks among the highest in American literature.

To narrate is one of the several processes determined by one of the several objects for which we speak or write—for which we con-

struct discourse. But it is only one of these processes. Description is another as widely different from Narration as Reduction of Fractions is from Involution. To confound the methods in these two processes would be as fatal as it would be to confound the methods in the two arithmetical processes just instanced. There are other processes still, which are now enumerated and explained with exactest logical accuracy and completeness. There is no lack of means, therefore, within the reach of the faithful teacher of composition for conducting his pupil along the straightest course of methodical training from one process to another, and prescribing to him appropriate and copious exercises on each. There is no art, perhaps, which admits to a higher degree than this very art of composing—than the art of discourse, of an exact scientific, progressive method of training. And as thus taught, composing ceases to be repulsive. It becomes positively interesting and inviting to every generous mind.

As in the first stage, the proper grammatical stage, we found the two elements—the form of the thought and the form of the word,—and as we began with the thought as the organic element, and then sought the appropriate verbal expression, so in the second stage—the rhetorical stage—we must begin with the thought as now determined and shaped by the particular object in writing. That is to be analyzed into its general forms so as to guide to the several processes which respect the management of the thought. After these several processes are mastered in sufficient practice on each successively, should come the proper study of the verbal expression—of style with suitable exercises in its several departments separately and successively.

In the way thus generally pointed, the acquisition of skill in speaking and writing becomes a clearly practicable, almost certain result, as it is seen to be by a rational procedure throughout, each successive step being simple and practicable, and each leading steadily to the proposed object—a ready command of thought and of correct expression for rational discourse.

VI.—STATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

AT LANCASTER, MASS.

THE success of the Farm School for boys, on Thompson's Island, in Boston Harbor, suggested to Hon. Theodore Lyman the noble donation to the State which resulted in the establishment of the Reform School for boys at Westborough.

Why should not equal provision be made for the neglected and vicious girls of the State, who were in even greater peril, and whose ruin would entail more serious consequences upon the community? was the question naturally suggested and persistently asked by benevolent men and women, until it was appropriately answered in the establishment of the *State Industrial School* for girls, at Lancaster, Mass.

As early as the Legislature of 1849, petitions, numerously signed, were forwarded to the "General Court," for the establishment of a "State Reform School for Girls." In 1850, commissioners were appointed to consider the subject and to report. A favorable report was made and referred to the succeeding Legislature, and was again, after discussion, referred in 1853. In the succeeding year, Governor Washburn commended the subject very warmly in his message to the consideration of the Legislature. A resolution was passed appropriating twenty thousand dollars for this purpose, providing the same amount should be raised, within six months, by private donations. Commissioners were also ordered, to be appointed by the Governor, to select a site, to prepare plans, and to propose the appropriate legislation for the establishment of such an institution.

The money was raised, and Messrs. John H. Wilkins, Henry B. Rogers, and Francis B. Fay, were appointed as commissioners to carry out the spirit of the resolves.

The site selected was an old brick mansion, in the ancient town of Lancaster, situated upon a fine, high lawn, embowered in elms, and surrounded by a farm of one hundred acres, (since increased to one hundred and forty,) sloping downward to a branch of the Nashua river. The lawn was increased in size and made symmetrical by the

generous gift from the town of the old common, or training field, that laid unimproved in front of the estate.

The large, square "Stillwell Mansion," by the outlay of a few thousand dollars was made to answer, quite conveniently, for one of the family houses. From the adjoining mountain, water was brought down in pipes, in sufficient quantity, and of an adequate "head" to meet all the wants of the institution, and to be distributed in every portion of it.

The site was every thing that could be desired, and was secured at a comparatively small price. To the indefatigable labors of Col. Fay, who deserves, for many reasons, the title of "father" to the institution, the State owes the admirable location of the school, and the marked economy attending its establishment.

After a careful examination of the plans of the more prominent European and American institutions, for the reformation of juvenile offenders, and calling to their aid the practical thinkers and writers upon this delicate question, the commissioners reported to the Legislature a system of organization and discipline, called, to distinguish it, the "family plan," following quite closely the arrangement of the institution for boys, at Mettray, in France, which was at that time attracting more attention among the friends of reform, than any other in Europe or America. Heretofore every public institution of the kind in this country had been upon the "congregate plan," constructed very similarly to penitentiaries, but made more comfortable, and wearing no penal aspect in their discipline. Greater indulgence, than is permitted in a penitentiary, was allowed in passing in and out of the limits of the reformatory, on the part of the children, and the officers were expected to hold a parental relation to the inmates, but still these institutions were included within walls, and the dormitories were closed by locks and bolts.

But the commissioners proposed that, at Lancaster, separate buildings should be constructed capable of accommodating thirty girls in each. That each house should be a separate family, under its appropriate matron, assistant matron, (who should also be the school teacher,) and housekeeper. All the work and study of the family, it was arranged, should go on under its own roof. No walls enclosed the village of homes that it was proposed to erect, and no fastenings defended the windows of the sleeping rooms from offering their facilities for the escape of the inmates. It is an interesting fact only two girls have succeeded in escaping from the school since its establishment, and these during the first six months of its history.

In each house it was proposed to distribute a portion of the older and of the younger girls—thus keeping up the idea of a family and securing the easier performance of the housework. The older girls were to have separate rooms, while the younger slept with a monitor in an open dormitory.

The work proposed for the girls was housework, the making of their own garments, knitting, and such plain trades as skirt making and straw braiding. From these sources, in the experiment of ten years, the time of the children has been fully occupied, when not engaged in school or in their necessary recreations.

The only change in the manner of committing subjects to the school from that pursued at Westborough, was the particularly happy arrangement to avoid the disgrace and taint of the court room, by appointing special commissioners to hear the complaints against the children, and constituting judges of probate, ex officio, commissioners for this purpose. By this means, also, the institution, it was thought, through the more careful supervision of special officers, would be saved from being overrun by a class of hardened and hopeless criminals, or by diseased and idiotic children.

Girls were permitted to be sent between the ages of seven and sixteen, and were, at first, committed until eighteen years of age. Since its organization, the trustees have received power from the Legislature to retain the custody of their subjects until they are twenty-one. As in other institutions, the trustees were empowered to indenture the girls, after having bestowed upon them sufficient training in the schools, to good families in the State or beyond its borders.

The report of the commissioners was accepted, and immediate steps were taken to provide buildings for the reception of inmates. The name by which the institution was known, in order to defend the girls committed to it, as far as possible, from any disgrace arising from their connection with it, was changed from "Reform School" to "Industrial School."

The institution was publicly dedicated, and the first house opened, Aug. 27th, 1856, and was, in a few months, filled with inmates of various ages, and, a large proportion of them, of American parentage. This somewhat remarkable fact, although the proportion has sometimes varied, has continued to characterize the subjects of the school until the present time.

The new houses were constructed of brick, two stories in height, very neatly and conveniently finished, at an expense of about twelve

thousand dollars each. By April, 1857, the third house had been opened, and, in January, 1860, the fourth.

In 1861, the fifth, and last house, a wooden dwelling-house fitted up for the purpose, was provided to meet the constantly increasing demand for accommodations. From the opening, the capacity of the school has always been fully taxed, and there has been scarcely a month when the rooms have not been uncomfortably crowded, and applications from Commissioners declined.

A convenient house, already on the grounds, formed a pleasant residence for the Superintendent, and another for the farmer. A neat, white, village church, standing unoccupied, was removed at small expense, and placed upon the lawn; and thus, five homes capable of receiving one hundred and fifty inmates, two family residences, and a pleasant chapel, were secured at an expense of but little over ($60,000) sixty thousand dollars.

For the first six years the institution was under the care of Rev. Bradford K. Peirce, now Chaplain of the New York House of Refuge. Since his resignation, the present excellent incumbent, Rev. Marcus Ames, has conducted its affairs with great prudence and most encouraging success. The Superintendent unites in himself, the legitimate duties of his office, and the delicate and responsible labors of the Chaplain.

On last October, when the latest report was made, there had been received into the school 464 inmates; there were present at that time, in the different homes, 132 inmates, and 234 had been returned to friends, or completed the term of their indentures. The remainder had been removed to hospitals, or alms-houses, or discharged as unsuitable.

Without doubt, a large proportion of these girls are now living honest and pure lives. Some of them are filling quite conspicuous positions, as teachers or matrons in similar schools, who seemed, at the time they were sent to the institution, predestined to a life of sin and sorrow. Many have not fulfilled the expectations excited in their behalf, and are now wandering amid the retributions of the life of a transgressor.

The close and beautiful relation existing between three Christian women and thirty young girls, sitting at the same table, and forming one circle in family prayer, and in all domestic and social duties and enjoyments, must have, as the experiment has proved, a powerful and redeeming influence. It is possible that the Industrial Home may have been so pleasant and so light in its exactions upon the

girl, that sometimes, she has turned away dissatisfied from a somewhat rough and exacting country home; or an ambition has been aroused for other employment than house-work, and, in the failure to gratify this newly awakened taste, the temptation to turn aside to the paths of sin may have been awakened afresh. It may also have happened, that the difficulties attending the indenturing of the girls have induced the retaining of children too long in the school. All institution life is unnatural, and no child should be retained in any one, however improving, longer than is indispensable to prepare the child for the natural home in a family, where it must, certainly, ultimately live. We should never weary of the experiment of placing the child in a home. If it fails in one, it may find a congenial atmosphere in another.

All these tendencies and open problems are constantly in the thoughts and discussions of the cultivated and benevolent gentlemen that watch over the interests of this favorite institution, and the highest success that human wisdom can secure for it will be their earnest and constant endeavor to attain.

To the writer, it would seem an improvement to this admirable system, to have one larger building, where all the inmates should be at first received, and afterwards be detailed to the various homes. This building might admit of some restraint, as all attempts to escape are in the first weeks of a child's connection with the institution. In this building might also be the rooms of the Superintendent's family, and the public offices. Here also accommodation could be provided for girls returned from their places, or sent back by the Commissioners after their discharge. Such girls often exercise an unhappy influence over one of the families, by the stubborn tempers or vicious habits which they usually bring back with them.

It would be better, the writer thinks, not to have separate schools in each family, but to have one school house, and all the children attend there, as they meet in Chapel. This would admit of better classification and instruction, and break up, in a measure, the somewhat monastic character of the institution life.

But, take it all together, there probably is not a public institution of reform in the world, better subserving the great purpose for which it was established, or bringing more honor or satisfaction to the State which has given it birth, than the State Industrial School at Lancaster.

B. K. PEIRCE.

VII. JOHN COLET, AND ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, LONDON.

JOHN COLET, D. D., Dean of the Cathedral Church of St. Paul's, London, who, as founder of St. Paul's School in 1509–10 and the regulator of its original course of study, exerted a controlling influence on the curriculum and methods of secondary instruction in England, was born in London in 1466--the son of a wealthy silk merchant, Sir Thomas Colet, who was mayor of the city in the years 1486 and 1495. Having improved diligently the best opportunities of education which St. Anthony's School in Threadneedle Street, London, and St. Mary Magdalene College, at Oxford, afforded, he resorted to the Continent, residing four years abroad, and pursuing his studies and holding intercourse with famous teachers and scholars, in France and Italy, as Gaguinus, Deloine, Budæus, Demetrius, Politianus, Hermolaus Barbarus, and Sabinus, and his own countrymen, Grocyne, Latymer, Linacer, and Lilly. His knowledge of Cicero and the best Latin authors, of logic and mathematics, and the Fathers of the Church, was profound, but of Greek literature, was quite limited. But in this last particular he shared the imperfections of that period, especially in England. Dr. Knight in his Life of Dean Colet, from which this memoir is compiled, observes:—

Such was the infelicity of those times, that the Greek tongue was not taught in any of our grammar schools, nor was there thought to be any great need of it in the two universities by the generality of scholars. It is worth notice, that Standish, who was a bitter enemy to Erasmus, in his declamation against him, styles him *Græculus iste*, which was for a long time after the phrase for an heretic, or one falling under the suspicion of heretical pravity. And for this very reason, those very few that understood Greek were afraid to teach it, lest they should be thought to propagate heresy.

But Dr. John Fisher, reputed the best preacher and the deepest divine in those times, head of Queen's College in Cambridge, chancellor of that university, chaplain at court, and afterwards Bishop of Rochester, was of another mind, and very sensible of this imperfection, which made him desirous to learn Greek in his declining years; and for that purpose he wrote to Erasmus, to persuade William Latymer, an Englishman, (who from his travels had brought home that language in perfection,) to be his instructor in it. Erasmus accordingly wrote to Latymer, and importuned him to it. But he declined the undertaking to teach the bishop at those years, alleging the long time it would require to make any proficiency in that tongue, from the examples of the greatest masters of it then in England, Grocin, Linacer, Tonstal, Pace, and Moore; and to excuse him-

self, advised that the bishop should send for a master out of Italy. And as there is no doubt but the consciousness of want of Greek in Colet incited him not only to attain to some competent knowledge of it himself, but also to lay the foundation of his school for the better accommodation of others, and to provide a master the best accomplished in that language, and so in effect to be the founder of the first Greek school in England, so not unlike to Dean Colet was Bishop Fisher in this point. For his want of Greek made him the greater patron and promoter of it in Cambridge, and his being chancellor of the university made it more eminent than Oxford in this respect; knowing therefore the abilities of Erasmus this way, he invited him thither, and supported him in professing that language, which he himself (at last) had made himself master of. And it would bear a general observation, that the worthy founders of colleges and schools have not been always the greatest clerks, though for the most part the wisest and best of men; there was sense and truth in that prelate, William Wickham, Bishop of Winchester, founder of the college there, and New College in Oxford, who, when accused of being no scholar, said, *he could make scholars, and that was greater.*

As for Oxford, its own history and antiquities sufficiently confess, that nothing was known there but Latin, and that in the most depraved style of the schoolmen. Cornelius Vitellius, an Italian, was the first who taught Greek in that university, and from him the famous Grocyne learned the first elements thereof.

In Cambridge, Erasmus was the first who taught the Greek grammar. And so very low was the state of learning in that university, "that (as he tells a friend) about the year 1485, the beginning of Henry the VIIth's reign, there was nothing taught in that public seminary besides Alexander's '*Parva Logicalia*,' (as they called them,) the old axioms of Aristotle, and the questions of John Scotus, till in process of time good letters were brought in, and some knowledge of the mathematics; as also Aristotle in a new dress, and some skill in the Greek tongue, and, by degrees, a multitude of authors, whose names before had not been heard of."

It is certain that even Erasmus himself did little understand Greek, when he came first into England, in 1497, (13 Henry VII.,) and that our countryman Linacer taught it him, being just returned from Italy with great skill in that language, which Linacer and William Grocyne were the two only tutors that were able to teach it. His first essay was in translating three declamations of Libanius from Greek into Latin in 1503.

The future Dean of St. Paul returned from his continental travels and studies with all the spirit and accomplishments which fitted him for public and court life, and with natural tastes for mere sensual enjoyment which his inherited wealth was calculated to foster, but breaking away from the seductions of both, he consecrated himself to temperance in all things, and to a career of pious, literary, and self-denying usefulness. He was made priest in 1497, and having already received several preferments in the Church, the enjoyment of which did not require residence as was the custom of that period, he retired to Oxford for the larger portion of each year until 1505, when he was made Dean of St. Paul.

While residing at Oxford, he was engaged in public instruction, by reading lectures on the Epistles of St. Paul without any remuneration, and which were much frequented not only by students, but by the most eminent professors and dignitaries of the Church. He here (1498) became personally acquainted with Erasmus, whose letters throw so much light not only on the life and character of his

correspondents, but on the state of education and literary society at that period in England, that we shall introduce extracts from Dr. Knight's account of their intimacy.

Erasmus had lived at Paris, and there had been tutor to several of our young nobility and gentry, particularly to the Honorable Thomas Grey, of the Dorset family, and the Lord Montjoy, by whose means probably he was induced to see England the first time; who, while he was thinking of a journey to Rome, stepped over from Calais to Dover, about the latter end of the year 1497, but seems to have made little or no stay in London, hastening down to Oxford, as the better mart of learning, being thither recommended by the prior and canons of St. Genovese at Paris, to Father Richard Charnock, prior of the regulars of the order of St. Austin, in the college of St. Mary the Virgin, where he was received, and accommodated with diet and lodging, in the most courteous and hospitable manner. Father Charnock, after a short trial of the parts and good qualities of his new guest, gave a character of him to Master Colet, that he was, in his opinion, a very excellent person, and of singular worth and goodness; which did so please him, (having also before heard of his fame abroad,) that he had not the patience to wait for an opportunity of seeing this learned stranger, but would make his first address with his pen, and wrote immediately to him from his own chamber an elegant and agreeable epistle, in such a turn of obliging thoughts and words, as showed the writer to be a scholar, a traveler, and a gentleman. He tells him that his friend Brome had heartily recommended him by letter, but that he stood before highly commended to him, as well by the fame of his reputation abroad, as by the testimony of his writings; that while he was at Paris, he well remembers the name of Erasmus was in the mouths of the learned, and that he had there particularly read over an epistle of his to Gaguinus, wherein he had celebrated his industry and skill in drawing up the history of France, which seemed to him to be the specimen of a perfect writer, both for learning and a knowledge of the world. But still the best recommendation of him was, that the venerable prior, with whom he now sojourned, had yesterday told him, that his new guest, in his opinion, was a very excellent person, and endowed with singular virtues.

To this letter Erasmus immediately returned a very apposite answer, that could he find any thing commendable in himself, he should be proud of being commended by such a worthy person, to whose judgment he allowed so great a weight, that his silent esteem alone had been preferable to all the applauses of a theatre at Rome. But, however, the commendations given him by such a person were so far from exalting him in his own conceit, that he was rather mortified by them, for they only put him in mind what he ought to be. That for his part, he best knew his own failings, and therefore would presume to give a character of himself.

You have in me a man of little or no fortune, a stranger to ambition, a mighty well-wisher to love and friendship, a sort of novice in learning, but yet a great admirer thereof. One who has a profound veneration for any excellence in others, as conscious of the want of it in himself; who can easily yield to any one in learning, to none in integrity; a man sincere, open, free, a hater of falsehood and dissimulation, of a mind lowly and upright, from whom nothing is to be expected besides an honest heart. If, my dear Colet, you can love such a man, and think him worthy of your friendship, you may account me your own as effectually as any thing you can call your own. Your country of England

is most pleasant to me upon many accounts, but especially on this—that it abounds with those blessings, without which nothing would relish with me, men of admirable learning, among whom no mortal will grudge that I reckon you the chief.

These two friends being now happy in each other's acquaintance, were not wanting to improve it to the mutual benefit of one another, particularly at a public dinner in the university, after a Latin sermon, where the table-talk was scholastic and theological, Master Colet sitting as moderator. Among other discourse Colet said, "that Cain's greatest offense, and the most odious in God's sight, was his distrusting the bounty of our great Creator, and placing too much confidence in his own art and industry, and so tilling the ground, while his brother Abel, content with the natural productions of the earth, was only feeding sheep." Upon this argument the whole company engaged, the divine arguing by strict syllogisms, while Erasmus opposed in a more loose and rhetorical manner, "but in truth," saith Erasmus, "this one divine (Master Colet) was more than a match for us all. He seemed to be filled with a divine spirit, and to be somewhat above a man; he spoke not only with his voice, but with his eyes, his countenance, and his whole demeanor." When the disputation grew too long, and was too grave and severe for such a cheerful entertainment, Erasmus broke it off, by telling an old story of Cain, from a pretended ancient author, though purely of his own invention upon the spot, and so they parted friends. Erasmus, the same year, gives this account of the result of that meeting, to one who was invited to it, Johannes Sixtinus, a learned Phrysian, who then studied in the university of Oxford, and was afterwards incorporated Doctor of Laws, in the year 1510.

Mr. Colet, as he was ambitious of contracting acquaintance with any person of note or virtue or learning, so he obliged Erasmus in bringing him to the acquaintance of his fellow-citizen, Mr. More, (afterwards Sir Thomas,) of whom he was used to say, that he was the only wit in the island. And as to Mr. More's opinion of Colet, it was so great and lasting, that after he was preferred to the deanery of St. Paul's and himself at Lincoln's Inn, he constantly attended on his excellent lectures.

Erasmus (who made up one of the happy triumvirate) was so well pleased with the air and conversation of Oxford, that like many other students, he staid till he had spent all his money, and was indebted for his commons. Upon this exigence, he writ to the Lord Mountjoy, to send him that little money he had in his hands, that he might be just to Father Charnock, who had treated him with all possible civility and bounty.

In this letter, dated from Oxford in 1498, he remembers the humanity of Colet, as well as of the Prior Charnock, and says, that nothing can be more sweet, lovely, and charming, than the temper and conversation of these two men; he could live even in Scythia, or any the remotest part of the world, with two such agreeable friends and companions. Towards the end of the same year, Erasmus, extremely well pleased with his enjoyments at Oxford, being supplied with money, returned to London, to wait upon his pupil, the Lord Mountjoy, and to gain and cultivate a better acquaintance with the men of studies and travels, who at that season of the year resorted to the court and city.

While Erasmus made some stay at Oxford, (in 1499,) the occasions of Master Colet called him to some other part of England, but whatever was the distance,

those two friends kept a constant correspondence. In one of his letters Master Colet had kindly reproved Erasmus for some fault and omission in him, which though not mentioned by Erasmus, yet we find how well it worked with him, and that he thought these kind monitions were rather an establishment than a breach of friendship, and without which plain dealing it was impossible it should subsist long. Then he freely expressed his great dislike of that new theology, which was unhapplily brought into the church by the modern schoolmen, and was in effect nothing but the art of trifling and wrangling, telling him that he had set himself against those scholastical divines, and would, if possible, restore the theological studies that were founded upon the Scriptures and the primitive fathers. That it was upon this view he had publicly in Oxford expounded the Epistles of St. Paul, and should be glad of a partner in that labor of searching the Scriptures. And he earnestly pressed Erasmus to join with him, and to undertake a like public exposition of some part of the Old Testament, (while he himself was employed in the New,) either a book of Moses, or the eloquent Isaiah, that he might so warm the minds and affections of the students in those cold winter months that were now coming on.

This excellent letter of Mr. Colet is lost, but the answer of Erasmus shows the contents of it. Wherein, among the excuses made for not complying with the advice of it, the best excuse of Erasmus was, that he must soon return to Paris. In the meantime, while he was detained in England, partly by the winter season, and partly by an embargo laid on shipping, upon the flight of a certain commander, [*i. e.*, an escape out of the Tower, made by the pretender, Perkin Warbeck,] he had retired for a few months to that famous university, to converse with scholars and divines, rather than with courtiers. He would have Colet go on with his laudable endeavors of reforming the studies of divinity, and says:—"As soon as I am conscious to myself of strength and ability sufficient, I will readily come in to your assistance, and be diligent at least, if not useful, in that excellent work. In the meantime, nothing can be a greater pleasure, than either in discourse, or by letter, to inquire into the sense and right meaning of the Holy Scriptures. Farewell, my Colet. The most courteous prelate, [all heads of religious houses were so called,] Richard Charnock, my host, and our common friend, bids me give you his wishes of health and happiness. Oxford—from the convent of canons of the order of St. Augustine, commonly called St. Mary's."

In this epistolary intercourse, Colet and Erasmus, like true Christians and divines, consulted and instructed one another. And their conversation, while together in England, was to promote their mutual studies and endeavors for the public good, which they continued to do many years after this, for when Erasmus was here preparing his immortal work, the New Testament in its original, and a new Latin version, he was very much assisted by Dr. Colet, who lent him two very authentic Latin copies, of great antiquity.

While at Cambridge, Erasmus writes to his friend Colet, that he was forced to fight for him with the Thomists and Scotists of that place, being the more angry with those fellows, for hindering the progress of learning, especially of the Greek language, at that time making its way into the world, which they were so mad at, that they could not forbear flying out against it even in their pulpits, and endeavored to run it down, under the notion of heresy, as hath been before hinted.

is most pleasant to me upon many accounts, but especially on this—that it abounds with those blessings, without which nothing would relish with me, men of admirable learning, among whom no mortal will grudge that I reckon you the chief.

These two friends being now happy in each other's acquaintance, were not wanting to improve it to the mutual benefit of one another, particularly at a public dinner in the university, after a Latin sermon, where the table-talk was scholastic and theological, Master Colet sitting as moderator. Among other discourse Colet said, "that Cain's greatest offense, and the most odious in God's sight, was his distrusting the bounty of our great Creator, and placing too much confidence in his own art and industry, and so tilling the ground, while his brother Abel, content with the natural productions of the earth, was only feeding sheep." Upon this argument the whole company engaged, the divine arguing by strict syllogisms, while Erasmus opposed in a more loose and rhetorical manner, "but in truth," saith Erasmus, "this one divine (Master Colet) was more than a match for us all. He seemed to be filled with a divine spirit, and to be somewhat above a man; he spoke not only with his voice, but with his eyes, his countenance, and his whole demeanor." When the disputation grew too long, and was too grave and severe for such a cheerful entertainment, Erasmus broke it off, by telling an old story of Cain, from a pretended ancient author, though purely of his own invention upon the spot, and so they parted friends. Erasmus, the same year, gives this account of the result of that meeting, to one who was invited to it, Johannes Sixtinus, a learned Phrysian, who then studied in the university of Oxford, and was afterwards incorporated Doctor of Laws, in the year 1510.

Mr. Colet, as he was ambitious of contracting acquaintance with any person of note or virtue or learning, so he obliged Erasmus in bringing him to the acquaintance of his fellow-citizen, Mr. More, (afterwards Sir Thomas,) of whom he was used to say, that he was the only wit in the island. And as to Mr. More's opinion of Colet, it was so great and lasting, that after he was preferred to the deanery of St. Paul's and himself at Lincoln's Inn, he constantly attended on his excellent lectures.

Erasmus (who made up one of the happy triumvirate) was so well pleased with the air and conversation of Oxford, that like many other students, he staid till he had spent all his money, and was indebted for his commons. Upon this exigence, he writ to the Lord Mountjoy, to send him that little money he had in his hands, that he might be just to Father Charnock, who had treated him with all possible civility and bounty.

In this letter, dated from Oxford in 1498, he remembers the humanity of Colet, as well as of the Prior Charnock, and says, that nothing can be more sweet, lovely, and charming, than the temper and conversation of these two men; he could live even in Scythia, or any the remotest part of the world, with two such agreeable friends and companions. Towards the end of the same year, Erasmus, extremely well pleased with his enjoyments at Oxford, being supplied with money, returned to London, to wait upon his pupil, the Lord Mountjoy, and to gain and cultivate a better acquaintance with the men of studies and travels, who at that season of the year resorted to the court and city.

While Erasmus made some stay at Oxford, (in 1499,) the occasions of Master Colet called him to some other part of England, but whatever was the distance,

those two friends kept a constant correspondence. In one of his letters Master Colet had kindly reproved Erasmus for some fault and omission in him, which though not mentioned by Erasmus, yet we find how well it worked with him, and that he thought these kind monitions were rather an establishment than a breach of friendship, and without which plain dealing it was impossible it should subsist long. Then he freely expressed his great dislike of that new theology, which was unhapplily brought into the church by the modern schoolmen, and was in effect nothing but the art of trifling and wrangling, telling him that he had set himself against those scholastical divines, and would, if possible, restore the theological studies that were founded upon the Scriptures and the primitive fathers. That it was upon this view he had publicly in Oxford expounded the Epistles of St. Paul, and should be glad of a partner in that labor of searching the Scriptures. And he earnestly pressed Erasmus to join with him, and to undertake a like public exposition of some part of the Old Testament, (while he himself was employed in the New,) either a book of Moses, or the eloquent Isaiah, that he might so warm the minds and affections of the students in those cold winter months that were now coming on.

This excellent letter of Mr. Colet is lost, but the answer of Erasmus shows the contents of it. Wherein, among the excuses made for not complying with the advice of it, the best excuse of Erasmus was, that he must soon return to Paris. In the meantime, while he was detained in England, partly by the winter season, and partly by an embargo laid on shipping, upon the flight of a certain commander, [*i. e.*, an escape out of the Tower, made by the pretender, Perkin Warbeck,] he had retired for a few months to that famous university, to converse with scholars and divines, rather than with courtiers. He would have Colet go on with his laudable endeavors of reforming the studies of divinity, and says:—"As soon as I am conscious to myself of strength and ability sufficient, I will readily come in to your assistance, and be diligent at least, if not useful, in that excellent work. In the meantime, nothing can be a greater pleasure, than either in discourse, or by letter, to inquire into the sense and right meaning of the Holy Scriptures. Farewell, my Colet. The most courteous prelate, [all heads of religious houses were so called,] Richard Charnock, my host, and our common friend, bids me give you his wishes of health and happiness. Oxford—from the convent of canons of the order of St. Augustine, commonly called St. Mary's."

In this epistolary intercourse, Colet and Erasmus, like true Christians and divines, consulted and instructed one another. And their conversation, while together in England, was to promote their mutual studies and endeavors for the public good, which they continued to do many years after this, for when Erasmus was here preparing his immortal work, the New Testament in its original, and a new Latin version, he was very much assisted by Dr. Colet, who lent him two very authentic Latin copies, of great antiquity.

While at Cambridge, Erasmus writes to his friend Colet, that he was forced to fight for him with the Thomists and Scotists of that place, being the more angry with those fellows, for hindering the progress of learning, especially of the Greek language, at that time making its way into the world, which they were so mad at, that they could not forbear flying out against it even in their pulpits, and endeavored to run it down, under the notion of heresy, as hath been before hinted.

Though the knowledge of the Greek tongue was at this time very low, yet there was a comment on Aristotle ventured upon for the sake of the schoolmen, wherein, (as ill-luck would have it,) by the mistake (or rather ignorance) of the commentator, instead of ψυχή ἐστιν ἄϋλος, *anima est immaterialis*, was read ψυχή ἐστιν αὐλός, and so it was rendered *anima est tibia*, instead of *immaterialis*. This put the good man's brains, while reading upon that author, on the tenters to clear his text; but at last he thought he had done notably, when he brought no less than fifteen reasons (such as they were) to prove that odd assertion, that the soul was a pipe, which Aristotle never so much as dreamt of.

This was the case with all of them, as to their ignorance in the Greek tongue. But yet they hugged themselves under this venerable mantle, and proclaimed every one an heretic, who understood that tongue, especially if he made use of his skill in translating or criticising upon the New Testament. And this aversion to good literature remained all the reign of Henry VII. and the beginning of Henry VIII. About which time, even at Oxford, a preacher declaimed openly at St. Mary's against the pernicious innovation of the Greek tongue, and raised such a ferment about it among the students, that the king, then at Woodstock, (having had the matter rightly stated to him by Mr. Thomas More and Richard Pace,) sent his royal letters to the university, to allow and commend that study among the young men.

It was not long after this, that a divine, preaching at court, presumed to rail plentifully at Greek learning, and new interpretations of the Scripture. Dr. Pace cast his eyes upon the king, to observe how his majesty was affected with such stuff. The king smiled upon Pace by way of contempt of the preacher, and after sermon sent for him, and appointed a solemn disputation, wherein he himself would be present, to debate the matter between the preacher opposing, and Mr. Thomas More defending the use of the Greek tongue. When the time came, Mr. More began an eloquent apology in favor of that ancient language. The divine, instead of answering to the purpose, fell down upon his knees, and only begged pardon for giving any offense in the pulpit. And excusing himself, that what he did, was by the impulse of the Spirit; "not the spirit of Christ," says the king, "but the spirit of infatuation." His majesty then asked him, whether he had read any thing of Erasmus? He said "No." "Why then," says the king, "you are a very foolish fellow, to censure what you never read." "I have read," says he, "something they call *Moira*." "Yes," says Pace, "may it please your highness, such a subject is fit for such a reader." At last the preacher, to bring himself the better off, declared, that he was now better reconciled to the Greek tongue, because it was derived from the Hebrew. The king, amazed at the ignorance of the man, dismissed him, with a charge that he should never again preach at court.

In 1501 Mr. Colet was permitted "to proceed in divinity to the reading of the Sentences;" in 1502 he became Prebendary of Durnesford; in 1504 he commenced Doctor of Divinity, and in 1505 he was advanced to the deanery of St. Paul's, which was hailed with great satisfaction by his friends at home and abroad. Here he at once entered on a course of labors which restored the decayed discipline of his cathedral church, and brought in a new practice of preaching himself upon Sundays, and all solemn festivals. He

had always a full auditory, and amongst others, the chief magistrate of the city. He instituted a course of divinity lectures, in which he secured the assistance of William Grocyne, (the Greek scholar,) John Major, (a learned Scot,) John Sowle, (a Carmelite,) and even the learned Erasmus.

Of Dean Colet's way of living in London we have a faithful picture in a letter of Erasmus to one of his continental friends.

There is at London, Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's—a man who has happily conjoined the deepest learning with the greatest piety, and therefore is of the highest esteem and authority among all sorts of people. * * The Dean's table, which, under the name of hospitality, had before served too much to pomp and luxury, he contracted to a more frugal and temperate way of entertaining. And it having been his custom, for many years, to eat but one meal, that of dinner, he had always the evening to himself. When he dined privately with his own family, he had always some strangers for his guests, but the fewer, because his provision was frugal, which yet was neat and genteel. The sittings were short, and the discourses such as pleased only the learned and the good. As soon as grace, before meat, was said, some boy, with a good voice, read distinctly a chapter out of one of St. Paul's Epistles, or out of the Proverbs of Solomon. When he had done reading, the Dean would pitch upon some particular part of it, and thence frame a subject-matter of discourse, asking either the learned, or such as were otherwise of good understanding, what was the meaning of this or that expression, and he would so adapt and temper his discourse, that though it was grave and serious, yet it never tired, or gave any distaste. Again, toward the end of dinner, when the company was rather satisfied than satiated, he would throw in another subject of discourse, and thus he dismissed his guests with a double repast, refreshed in their minds as well as bodies, so that they always went away better than they came, and were not oppressed with what they had eat and drunk. He was mightily delighted with the conversation of his friends, which he would sometimes protract till very late in the evening, but all his discourse was either of learning or religion. If he could not get an agreeable companion, (for it was not every body he did like,) one of his servants read some part of the Holy Scriptures to him. In his journeys he would sometimes make me his companion, and he was as easy and pleasant as any man living, yet he always carried a book with him, and all his discourse was seasoned with religion. He was so impatient of whatsoever was foul and sordid, that he could not bear with any indecent or improper way of speaking. He loved to be neat and clean in his goods, furniture, entertainment, apparel, and books, and whatever belonged to him, and yet he despised all state and magnificence. His habit was only black, though it was then common for the higher clergy to be clad in purple. His upper garment was always of woolen cloth, and plain, which, if the weather was cold and required it, he lined with fur. Whatever came in by his ecclesiastical preferments, he delivered to his steward, to be laid out on family occasions or hospitality, and all that arose from his own proper estate (which was very large) he gave away for pious and charitable uses.

The Dean's labors in fulfilling all the duties of his position, in

discharging faithfully all charitable bequests to the cathedral, and enforcing discipline and regulations on the clergy, as well as in his pulpit discourses, made some private enemies among the dignitaries, and exposed him to the imputation of heresy. Of one of the most formidable of these attacks, Erasmus gives an account in a letter to one of his Paris correspondents.

The Dean had never stood right with the bishop, who was a very rigid Scotist, and the more jealous of the Dean, because his lectures and sermons were chiefly employed in opening the sense of the Scriptures, which being in the new way of learning, was called *heresy*. And in truth, at that time, any divine that had more learning or piety than the grosser part of his order, or did touch or talk of any thing out of the common road of the Church of Rome, was counted a perverse heretic, or at least suspected of the crime of heretical pravity. The bishop, upon this score, accuses the Dean to the archbishop as a dangerous man, and calling in the assistance of two other bishops of equal bigotry and no less virulency, he began to create him a great deal of trouble and vexation, using no other weapon but that of the charge of *heresy*, which was then reckoned the most fatal engine for the destruction of their enemies. So the bishop drew up certain articles against the Dean. One was, that the said Dr. Colet had taught that images were not to be worshiped. A second was, that he had preached against the temporal possessions of the bishops, by denying that the repeated exhortation of Christ to Peter, *to feed his sheep*, could be at all meant of hospitality, or the worldly ways of entertainment, because the apostles were then poor, and unable to give any such reception. A third was, that he had preached against some men's reading their sermons in a cold, unaffected manner, whereby he must needs mean to reflect upon the bishop himself, who, by reason of his old age, had taken up that idler way of preaching. But Archbishop Warham, who knew the integrity and worth of Dr. Colet, undertook to defend the innocent party, and from a judge became his advocate and patron, and dismissed him without giving him the trouble of putting in any formal answer. And yet the old bishop did not cool in his spirit of persecution, but in effect appealed from the archbishop to the king, by endeavoring, all that was possible, to incense his highness and the whole court against him.

As it was, he was for a time under censure, and was obliged to suspend his labors in the pulpit.

Bishop Latimer, who was at that time a young student at Cambridge, remembered the noise that the prosecution of Dean Colet for heresy then made, and says expressly, that he "was not only in trouble, but should have been burnt, if God had not turned the king's heart to the contrary."

The Dean was charitable to those who differed from him in opinion, if they were honest and industrious in their lives, and he had frequent occasion to interpose his influence both with magistrates and the king in behalf of individuals of a class known as Lollards, who resided in the neighborhood of the cathedral. His own troubles and persecutions only made him more devout and charitable, weaning him from the world, and bringing him in mind and soul

much nearer to heaven. In this frame of mind, he conceived the project of consecrating his worldly goods to some perpetual benefaction, which was consummated by the founding of St. Paul's School in London in 1508–10, some ten years before his death, which occurred in 1519. Of this enterprise his biographer, Dr. Knight, gives a particular account, which we shall transfer to our pages as the best memorial of his services to good learning, and the evidence of the teaching of his day.

Of the excellencies of Dean's Colet's life and character, Erasmus has left numerous mention in letters written from Louvain on receiving tidings of his death.

To Mr. Dancaster he writes:—"How deplorable is your case and mine, who have lost such a teacher, such a patron, such a friend! It is said to a proverb, that *the loss of money is bewailed with the truest sorrow*, but I am sure this is a loss of more inestimable treasure, and ought to be infinitely more lamented. But alas! what signify all our sighs and tears? He can not be recalled to us, but we shall soon follow him. We should rather, in the meantime, congratulate our late friend, that he is now in better company; he securely enjoys his Saviour Christ, whom he always had in his lips and at his heart."

To Bishop Fisher:—"I write now in tears for the decease of Dr. Colet—a loss and affliction to me greater than I have suffered these thirty years. I know his state is happy; he is now delivered from a troublesome and wicked world, and enjoys the presence of his Redeemer Jesus, whom he loved so affectionately in his life; but in the name of the world, I can not but deplore the loss of such an admirable example of Christian piety, such an excellent preacher of the gospel of Christ, and even in my own name, I must bewail the loss of a constant friend and incomparable patron. All that I can do is, to pay my just duty to his name and memory, and not to suffer them to die, if any thing I write can live to posterity."

And tenderly and faithfully did he perform this duty in his epistle addressed to Justus Jonas, Rector of the University of Erfurt, in which he has embalmed for posterity the principal incidents and characteristic features of the life and character of his two friends, John Colet and John Vitrier.

Truly, my dear friend, though I have conversed with very many whose integrity and goodness I have heartily approved, yet hitherto I never saw the man in whose morals I did not discover somewhat of the Christian simplicity and purity to be wanting when compared with these two excellent persons whom I am now going to describe. I became acquainted with one of them at St. Omers, when the plague (so far happy to me) drove me from Paris to that town, and with the other in England, when I was first drawn thither out of love and respect to my young pupil, the Lord Mountjoy. You will reckon it your advantage, I know, if, instead of one, I give you two. The first, namely John Vitrier, was a monk of the order of St. Francis. He fell into that way of life while very young, and was in no other respect behind Dr. Colet, save only

that, being a slave to his order, he had not the opportunity of doing so much good.

He concludes his letter thus:—"I have here given you two of the truest and sincerest Christians that I believe any one age ever produced—not in a perfect print, but in a sort of rough draught, as far as the narrow compass of an epistle would allow. It will be your part to pick out of both what you think will conduce most to Christian piety. If you ask to which of the two I would give the preference—I think them of equal goodness, though of different condition of life. And as it was a greatness of soul in Colet, with that plentiful fortune, not to follow where nature but where his Saviour called him, so truly it was a singular excellence in Vitrier, that he could show so much of a pure, evangelical spirit in such a wrong turn of religious life, and be, as it were, a fish in the fens without any thing of the muddy taste. After all, there were some things in Colet that savored a little of human infirmity, but I never saw any thing in Vitrier that betrayed the least tincture of flesh and blood."

VIII. ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL.*

THE state of schools in London before Dean Colet's foundation was to this effect: the chancellor of Paul's (as in all the ancient cathedral churches) was master of the schools, (*magister scholarum*,) having the direction and government of literature, not only within the church but within the whole city; so that all the masters and teachers of grammar depended on him and were subject to him; particularly he was to find a fit master for the school of St Paul, and present him to the dean and chapter, and then to give him possession, and at his own cost and charges to repair the houses and buildings belonging to the school. This master of the grammar school was to be a sober, honest man, of good and laudable learning, who should instruct the boys, especially those belonging to the church, in grammar, and set them the example of a good life, and take great care not to deprave the minds of those little ones by any turpitude in word or deed, but with chaste language and conversation train them up in holiness and the fear of God, and be unto them, not only a master of grammar but also of virtue and religion. He was, to all intents, the true vice-chancellor of the church, and was sometime so called, and this was the original meaning of chancellors (and vice-chancellors) in the two universities or great schools of the kingdom. A grant of the office and dignity of chancellor of the church passed formerly by giving and granting the school of St. Paul, as in the time of Richard de Belmeis, Bishop of London, about 1123.

That Paul's School was very ancient appears by the charter of Richard, Bishop of London, in Henry I.'s time, who granted to one Hugh, the schoolmaster thereof, and his successors, the habitation of Durandus, at the corner of the turret or bell-tower, and the custody of the library belonging to the church; after whom succeeded Henry, a canon of the same bishop; which Henry was so respected by Henry de Bloys, Bishop of Winchester, that he commanded none should teach school in London without his license, except the schoolmasters of St. Mary le Bow and St. Martin le Grand. All that presumed to open any school within the city, (except in those exempt places,) after a third admonition, were to be excommunicated.

Dean Colet being desirous his school should be independent upon this power, (which probably he observed had been somewhat abused,) was therefore, in respect to the memory of his father, who had gained a fair estate in the company of mercers, as well as for other reasons, willing to show his regard to them, by constituting them sole governors of his foundation; and he seems to have been instrumental in obtaining for them the right of nomination, or presentation, of a master to the hospital of St. Thomas of Acon, in the city of London, (now Mercers' Chapel,) granted to the said society by Richard, Bishop of London, in 1514.

At this time the common way for the nobility and gentry to educate their sons was, to send them into a religious convent, especially of the Dominicans,

* Abridged from Knight's "*Life of Dr. John Colet.*"

Franciscans, or Augustine friars, where, as Erasmus says, "they had not above three months' time allowed them for learning grammar, and then immediately were posted away to sophistry, logic, suppositions, ampliations, restrictions, expositions, resolutions, and a thousand quibbles, and so on to the mysteries of divinity, but if they were brought to any classic author, Greek or Latin, they were blind, they were ignorant, they thought themselves in another world." Yet the age began now to be wiser, and to be well versed in grammar-learning was thought a matter of greater importance by all who were well-wishers to the restoration of learning. Particularly Bishop Waynfleet, in founding his three schools, at Waynfleet, Brackley, and within Magdalen College in Oxford, took care that in those different parts of the kingdom the seeds of Greek and human literature might be early sown, to yield a plentiful increase through the whole nation; and in his foundation of Magdalen College, as he provided sufficient salaries for a master and usher to teach boys the rudiments of that tongue, so for the scholars of his house that should grow up to greater maturity in age and learning, he settled a particular professor, to confirm and perfect them in that language.

Instruction in grammar was a main use and purpose of the ancient foundations. And even so late as the erecting and endowing of Jesus College in Cambridge it was, as for a master and six fellows, so for a certain number of scholars to be instructed in grammar.

It may show the great regard had about this time to these studies, that the university students took their degrees in rhetoric and grammar, the manner whereof Mr. Wood tells us, in his account of an eminent grammarian, Robert Whitington. "In the beginning of the year 1513, 5 Henry VIII., he supplicated the venerable congregation of regents, under the name and title of Robert Whytingdon, a secular chaplain, and a scholar of the art of rhetoric, that whereas he had spent fourteen years in the study of the said art, and twelve years in the informing of boys, it might be sufficient for him that he might be laureated. This supplication being granted, he was (after he had composed an hundred verses, which were stuck up in public places, especially on the door or doors of St. Mary's church,) very solemnly crowned, or his temples adorned with a wreath of laurel, that is, doctorated in the arts of grammar and rhetoric, 4. July the same year." And this may discover the error of some, who, not considering the crown of laurel as the ensign of a degree, have been apt to think that a poet laureat of old, as well as of late, had that title and a pension with it from the prince, when it came from the university in commencing the degree of doctor of grammar, as it came thus to Bernard Andreas, tutor of Prince Arthur, to John Skelton, tutor of Prince Henry, &c.

Polydore Vergil and Erasmus, both personally acquainted with the life and motives of Dean Colet, have described the establishment of St. Paul's School.

Polydore Vergil, in the twenty-sixth book of his History of England, speaking of the new foundations of colleges in Oxford and Cambridge, adds:—

It was the same spirit of virtue and glory that excited Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, to propagate in some like manner the knowledge of good letters. He being very eminent, as well for his greatness and firmness of mind, as for his goodness and integrity of life, was esteemed among his countrymen (the English) as if he had been a second St. Paul. For being from a child naturally devout and religious, as soon as he grew up, and was perfectly instructed in those arts and sciences which are called the studies of humanity, he applied himself with the utmost intention to divinity, and chose out St. Paul for his

great master and director, in whose writings he was so conversant, both at Oxford and Cambridge, and in Italy, that, becoming a sound divine, and a complete scholar, as soon as he returned from his travels, he began to read public lectures out of the Epistles of St. Paul, in his native city of London, and to preach often in the churches. And because his life was agreeable to his doctrine, people were much the more attentive and complying to him. For he was a man of exemplary temperance, and all other virtues. He eat but once a day. He was not ambitious of honor, nor covetous of worldly wealth; so far from pursuing after riches, that he rather avoided and fled from them, while they notwithstanding pursued and overtook him. It so happened, that of two and twenty children which Henry Colet, his father, (a citizen of great prudence and virtue,) had by Christian, his wife, (an excellent woman, of a good family,) this John was the only survivor, and his father's inheritance came to him. When he was in full possession of it, observing that many of his fellow-natives of that city did, by the mere strength of nature, grow up into considerable men, he concluded they would sooner do so, if they had the help and advantage of being trained up in good literature. And therefore he resolved to lend (at his own expense) that assistance to the children of that city; for which purpose he founded a magnificent school in the east part of St. Paul's churchyard, and appointed two masters, the principal being William Lily, the other John Ryghthuyse, who was to attend the lower boys—both men of learning, good manners, and the greatest diligence. Lily was a man (in the phrase of Horace) *of a pure and unspotted life*, who, after he had bestowed some years in Italy, for the attaining of perfect letters, *i. e.*, the Greek and Latin tongues, upon his return was the first among the English that taught them in any public school. It was somewhat before this time, that Cornelius Vitellius, an Italian, born at Cornaro, a maritime town on the coast of Tuscany, a man of a noble family, and of all agreeable qualifications, taught both these kinds of literature at Oxford.

For those two masters Dean Colet made a suitable provision, by annual salaries, to support them, in teaching without fee or reward forever. And he made it an injunction, that in the room of the upper master, the second should succeed, without just impediment, by which means Ryghthuyse succeeded Lily, and after Ryghthuyse, Master Richard Jones, a very learned and modest man. But as by the benefit of this school the London youth have been very much polished and improved, so the whole kingdom has enjoyed the good effects of a daily progress of languages and school learning.

But the best account is given us by Erasmus, and it is very particular as followeth.

Upon the death of his father, when by right of inheritance he was possessed of a good sum of money, lest the keeping of it should corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new school in the churchyard of St. Paul's, dedicated to the child Jesus; a magnificent fabric; to which he added two dwelling-houses for the two several masters, and to them he allotted ample salaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys, free, and for the sake of charity. He divided the school into four apartments. The first, *viz.*, the porch and entrance, is for catechumens, or the children to be instructed in the principles of religion, where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The second apartment is for the lower boys, to be taught by the second master or usher; the third for the upper forms, under the head-master, which two parts of the school are divided by a curtain, to be drawn at pleasure. Over the master's chair is an image of the child Jesus, of admirable work, in the gesture of teaching, whom all the boys, going and coming, salute with a short hymn; and there is a representation of God the Father, saying, *Hear ye him*, these words being written at my suggestion. The fourth or last apartment is a little chapel for divine service. The school has no corners or hiding places; nothing like a cell or closet. The boys have their distinct forms, or benches, one above another. Every form holds sixteen, and he that is head or captain of each form has a little kind of desk by way of preëminence. They are not to admit all boys of course, but to choose them in according to their parts and capacities. The wise and sagacious founder saw that the greatest hopes and happiness of the commonwealth were in the training up of children to good letters and true religion, for which noble purpose he laid out

Franciscans, or Augustine friars, where, as Erasmus says, "they had not above three months' time allowed them for learning grammar, and then immediately were posted away to sophistry, logic, suppositions, ampliations, restrictions, expositions, resolutions, and a thousand quibbles, and so on to the mysteries of divinity, but if they were brought to any classic author, Greek or Latin, they were blind, they were ignorant, they thought themselves in another world." Yet the age began now to be wiser, and to be well versed in grammar-learning was thought a matter of greater importance by all who were well-wishers to the restoration of learning. Particularly Bishop Waynfleet, in founding his three schools, at Waynfleet, Brackley, and within Magdalen College in Oxford, took care that in those different parts of the kingdom the seeds of Greek and human literature might be early sown, to yield a plentiful increase through the whole nation; and in his foundation of Magdalen College, as he provided sufficient salaries for a master and usher to teach boys the rudiments of that tongue, so for the scholars of his house that should grow up to greater maturity in age and learning, he settled a particular professor, to confirm and perfect them in that language.

Instruction in grammar was a main use and purpose of the ancient foundations. And even so late as the erecting and endowing of Jesus College in Cambridge it was, as for a master and six fellows, so for a certain number of scholars to be instructed in grammar.

It may show the great regard had about this time to these studies, that the university students took their degrees in rhetoric and grammar, the manner whereof Mr. Wood tells us, in his account of an eminent grammarian, Robert Whitington. "In the beginning of the year 1513, 5 Henry VIII., he supplicated the venerable congregation of regents, under the name and title of Robert Whytingdon, a secular chaplain, and a scholar of the art of rhetoric, that whereas he had spent fourteen years in the study of the said art, and twelve years in the informing of boys, it might be sufficient for him that he might be laureated. This supplication being granted, he was (after he had composed an hundred verses, which were stuck up in public places, especially on the door or doors of St. Mary's church,) very solemnly crowned, or his temples adorned with a wreath of laurel, that is, doctorated in the arts of grammar and rhetoric, 4. July the same year." And this may discover the error of some, who, not considering the crown of laurel as the ensign of a degree, have been apt to think that a poet laureat of old, as well as of late, had that title and a pension with it from the prince, when it came from the university in commencing the degree of doctor of grammar, as it came thus to Bernard Andreas, tutor of Prince Arthur, to John Skelton, tutor of Prince Henry, &c.

Polydore Vergil and Erasmus, both personally acquainted with the life and motives of Dean Colet, have described the establishment of St. Paul's School.

Polydore Vergil, in the twenty-sixth book of his History of England, speaking of the new foundations of colleges in Oxford and Cambridge, adds:—

It was the same spirit of virtue and glory that excited Dr. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, to propagate in some like manner the knowledge of good letters. He being very eminent, as well for his greatness and firmness of mind, as for his goodness and integrity of life, was esteemed among his countrymen (the English) as if he had been a second St. Paul. For being from a child naturally devout and religious, as soon as he grew up, and was perfectly instructed in those arts and sciences which are called the studies of humanity, he applied himself with the utmost intention to divinity, and chose out St. Paul for his

great master and director, in whose writings he was so conversant, both at Oxford and Cambridge, and in Italy, that, becoming a sound divine, and a complete scholar, as soon as he returned from his travels, he began to read public lectures out of the Epistles of St. Paul, in his native city of London, and to preach often in the churches. And because his life was agreeable to his doctrine, people were much the more attentive and complying to him. For he was a man of exemplary temperance, and all other virtues. He eat but once a day. He was not ambitious of honor, nor covetous of worldly wealth; so far from pursuing after riches, that he rather avoided and fled from them, while they notwithstanding pursued and overtook him. It so happened, that of two and twenty children which Henry Colet, his father, (a citizen of great prudence and virtue,) had by Christian, his wife, (an excellent woman, of a good family,) this John was the only survivor, and his father's inheritance came to him. When he was in full possession of it, observing that many of his fellow-natives of that city did, by the mere strength of nature, grow up into considerable men, he concluded they would sooner do so, if they had the help and advantage of being trained up in good literature. And therefore he resolved to lend (at his own expense) that assistance to the children of that city; for which purpose he founded a magnificent school in the east part of St. Paul's churchyard, and appointed two masters, the principal being William Lily, the other John Ryghthuyse, who was to attend the lower boys—both men of learning, good manners, and the greatest diligence. Lily was a man (in the phrase of Horace) *of a pure and unspotted life*, who, after he had bestowed some years in Italy, for the attaining of perfect letters, *i. e.*, the Greek and Latin tongues, upon his return was the first among the English that taught them in any public school. It was somewhat before this time, that Cornelius Vitellius, an Italian, born at Cornaro, a maritime town on the coast of Tuscany, a man of a noble family, and of all agreeable qualifications, taught both these kinds of literature at Oxford.

For those two masters Dean Colet made a suitable provision, by annual salaries, to support them, in teaching without fee or reward forever. And he made it an injunction, that in the room of the upper master, the second should succeed, without just impediment, by which means Ryghthuyse succeeded Lily, and after Ryghthuyse, Master Richard Jones, a very learned and modest man. But as by the benefit of this school the London youth have been very much polished and improved, so the whole kingdom has enjoyed the good effects of a daily progress of languages and school learning.

But the best account is given us by Erasmus, and it is very particular as followeth.

Upon the death of his father, when by right of inheritance he was possessed of a good sum of money, lest the keeping of it should corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new school in the churchyard of St. Paul's, dedicated to the child Jesus; a magnificent fabric; to which he added two dwelling-houses for the two several masters, and to them he allotted ample salaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys, free, and for the sake of charity. He divided the school into four apartments. The first, *viz.*, the porch and entrance, is for catechumens, or the children to be instructed in the principles of religion, where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The second apartment is for the lower boys, to be taught by the second master or usher; the third for the upper forms, under the head-master, which two parts of the school are divided by a curtain, to be drawn at pleasure. Over the master's chair is an image of the child Jesus, of admirable work, in the gesture of teaching, whom all the boys, going and coming, salute with a short hymn; and there is a representation of God the Father, saying, *Hear ye him*, these words being written at my suggestion. The fourth or last apartment is a little chapel for divine service. The school has no corners or hiding places; nothing like a cell or closet. The boys have their distinct forms, or benches, one above another. Every form holds sixteen, and he that is head or captain of each form has a little kind of desk by way of preëminence. They are not to admit all boys of course, but to choose them in according to their parts and capacities. The wise and sagacious founder saw that the greatest hopes and happiness of the commonwealth were in the training up of children to good letters and true religion, for which noble purpose he laid out

an immense sum of money, and yet he would admit no one to bear a share in this expense. Some person having left a legacy of one hundred pounds sterling toward the fabric of the school, Dean Colet perceived a design in it, and, by leave of the bishop, got that money to be laid out upon the vestments of the church of St. Paul. After he had finished all, he left the perpetual care and oversight of the estate, and government of it, not to the clergy, not to the bishop, not to the chapter, nor to any great minister at court, but amongst the married laymen, to the company of mercers, men of probity and reputation. And when he was asked the reason of so committing this trust, he answered to this effect: That there was no absolute certainty in human affairs, but for his part he found less corruption in such a body of citizens than in any other order or degree of mankind.

Dean Colet, it is plain, had grammar-learning so much at heart, that in the year 1509, as he had been the pious founder of this school, so he was laboring himself to be the perpetual teacher and instructor of it; and therefore, after he had appointed Mr. William Lily to be the chief or high master, who answered Erasmus' character of a good scholar in all respects, he drew up some rudiments of grammar, with an abridgment of the principles of religion, and published them for the standing use and service of Paul's School, entitled "*Rudimenta Grammatices a Johanne Coleto, Decano Ecclesiæ Sancti Pauli London, in Usum Scholæ ab ipso institutæ.*" Which little manual, called Paul's Accidence, the author, Dr. Colet, dedicated to the new master, Lilye, in a short, elegant Latin epistle, dated from his own house the first of August, 1510.

The most remarkable part of this introduction to grammar are the honest and admirable rules that the Dean prescribed for the admission and continuance of boys in his school, which rules and orders were to be read over to the parents, when they first brought their children, for their assent to them, as the express terms and conditions of expecting any benefit of education there.

— The mayster shall reherse these articles to them that offer their chyldren, on this wyse here followynge ——

If youre chylde can rede and wryte Latyn and Englyshe suffycyently, so that he be able to rede and wryte his own lessons, then he shal be admitted into the schole for a scholer.

If youre chylde, after resonable season proved, be founde here unapte and unable to lernynge, than ye warned thereof, shal take hym awaye, that he occupye not oure rowme in vayne.

If he be apt to lerne, ye shal be contente that he continue here tyl he have competent literature.

If he absente vi dayes, and in that mean season ye shew not cause reasonable, (resonable cause is al only sekenes,) than his rowme to be voyde, without he be admitted agayne, and pay iiiid.

Also after cause shewed, if he contenewe to absente tyl the weke of admyssion in the next quarter, and then ye shewe not the contenuance of his sekenes, then his rowme to be voyde, and he none of the schole tyl he be admytted agayne, and paye iiiid. for wryting his name.

Also if he fall thryse into absence, he shal be admytted no more.

Your chylde shal, on Chyldermas daye, wayte upon the boy byshop at Poules, and offer there.

Also ye shal fynde him waxe in winter.

Also ye shal fynde him convenyent bokes to his lernynge.

If the offerer be content with these articles, than let his childe be admytted.

Then follow, in English, The Articles of the Faythe; the seven Sacraments; Charyte, the love of God, the love of thyne own self, the love of thy neighbour, penaunce, howselinge in sekenes, in deth, precepts of lyvinge: (in Latine,) Symbolum Apostolicum; Oratio Dominica; Salutatio Angelica; Oratiuncula ad puerum Jesum Scolæ Præsidem; Mi Domine, Jesu suavissime; qui puer adhuc, anno ætatis tuæ duodecimo, &c.

We give below Dean Colet's "*Institution of a Christian Man, for the Use of his School, prefixed to the Rudiments of the Latin Tongue.*"

The Artycles of Faythe.

I byleve in God the Father almyghty creatour of heven, and of erth, &c.

Then follow the the sacramentes.

Charyte. The Love of God.

In trewe byleve I shall fyrste love God the Father almyghty that made me, and our Lorde Jesu Chryste that redemed me, and the Holy Goost that alway inspireth me. This blessed holy Trinite I shall alway love and honour, and serve with all my herte, mynde, and strength, and fere God alonely, and put my trust in hym alonely.

The love of thyne owne selfe.

Seconde, I shall love my selfe to God warde, and shall abstayne fro all synne as moche as I may, specially from the synnes deedly.

I shall not be proude, nor envyous, nor wrothfull, I shall not be glotenous, nor lecherous, nor slouthfull, I shal not be covetous desiring superfluite of worldly thynges, and yvell company I shall eschewe, and flye as moche as I may.

I shall gyve me to grace and virtue, and connynge in God. I shall pray often, specially on the holy dayes. I shall lyve alway temperatly, and sobre of my mouthe.

I shall fast the dayes commaunded in Christes Chyrche. I shall kepe my mynde fro yveil and foule thoughtes. I shall kepe my mouth from swearyng, lyenge, and foule spekynge.

I shall kepe my handes fro stelyng and pyking. Thynges taken away I shall restore agayne. Thynges founde I shall rendre agayne.

The love of thy neyghbour.

Thyrde, I shal love my neyghbour: that is every man to Godwarde, as my owne selfe. And shall helpe hym in all necessytes spyritually and bodyly, as I wolde be holpen my owne selfe; specially my father and my moder, that brought me into this worlde. The mayster that teacheth me I shall honour and obey.

My felowes that lerne with me I shall love.

Penaunce.

If I fall to synne I shall anone ryse agayne by penaunce and pure confessyon.

Houslynge.

As often as I shall receive my Lorde in sacrament, I shall with all study dispose me to pure clenlynesse and devocyon.

In sycknesse.

Whan I shall dye, I shal call for the sacramentes and rightes of Chrystes churche by tymes. and be confessed, and receyve my Lorde and Redemer Jesu Chryst.

In dethe.

And in peryll of dethe I shal gladly call to be enea ea, and so armed in God I shal departe to hym in truste of his mercy, in our Lorde Chryst Jesu.

Hoc fac, et vives.

Preceptes of lyvynge.

Feare God.
Love God.
Desyre to be with hym.
Serve hym dayly with some prayer.
Brydle the affectyons of thy mynde.
Subdue thy sensual appetytes.
Thrust downe pryde.
Refrayne thy wrathe.
Beware of ryot.
Dispende measurably.
Flye dishonesty.
Be true in worde and dede.
Reverende thy elders.
Obey thy superyours.
Be felowe to thyne equales.
Be benygne and loving to thyne inferyours.
Love all men in God.
Byleve and trust in Christ Jesu, worshyp hym, and hym serve and obey.
Call often for grace of the Holy Goost.
Love peace and equyte.
Thynke on dethe.
Drede the judgment of God.
Trust in Goddes mercy.
Be alway well occupied.
Forget trespaces.
Forgyve gladly.
Chastyse thy body.
Be sobre of thy mouthe.
Be sobre of meat and drinke.
Be sobre in talkynge.
Flye swearynge.
Flye foule language.
Love clenlynesse and chastyte.
Use honest company.
Lose no tyme.
Stand in grace.
Fallyng down dispayre not.
Ever take a fresshe newe good purpose.
Persever constauntly.
Use oft tymes confessyon.
Wasshe cleane.
Sorowe for thy synnes.
Aske often mercy.
Be no slogarde.
Awake quyckly.
Enryche the with vertue.
Lerne dyligently.
Teche that thou hast lerned lovingly.
By this way thou shalt come to grace and to glory. Amen.

Symbolum Apostolorum.

Credo in Deum Patrem, &c.

Oratio Dominica.

Pater noster, qui es in cœlis, &c.

Oratiuncula ad puérum Jesum scholæ præsidem.

Mi Domine Jesu suavissime, qui puer adhuc anno ætatis tuæ duodecimo in Hierosolymitano templo inter doctores illos sic disputasti, ut stupefacti universi tuam superexcellentem sapientiam admirarentur: te quæso, ut in hac tua schola, cui præes, et patrocinaris, eam quotidie discam, et literaturam, et sapientiam, qua possim in primis te, Jesu, qui es ipsa vera sapientia, cognoscere, deinde cognitum eundem te colere, et imitari, atque in hac brevi vita sic ambulare in via doctrinæ tuæ sequax vestigiorum tuorum, ut quo pervenisti ipse ad aliquam ejus gloriæ partem decedens ex hac luce, possim ego quoque tua gratia feliciter pervenire. Amen.

The above Rudiments or Institution of a Christian Man, by Dean Colet, was translated into Latin verse by Erasmus, as a sort of school catechism or instruction, at the request of the Dean. Erasmus writes in a letter to John Nævius, master of the Libian School at Louvain, and adds respecting his friend, "a good man, of singular wisdom, whose flourishing kingdom of England could hardly equal, or afford one other man more pious, or more truly a disciple of Christ," "seeing the sad and degenerate condition of the age, chose out the tender youth to work on, that he might put the new wine of Christ into new bottles."

Christiani Hominis Institutum, per Erasmum Rot. scriptum in usum scholæ Londini institutæ per Joannem Coletum, inter epigrammata Des. Erasmi Rot. 4to. Bas. 1518.

Valet in Christo fides quæ per dilectionem operatur.

Fides.

I. Articulus. *Credo.*

Confiteor primum ore pio, venerorque fideli
Mente Deum Patrem, vel nutu cuncta potentem.
Hunc, qui stelligeri spaciosa volumina cœli,
Et solidum omniparæ telluris condidit orbem.

II. *Et in Jesum.*

Ejus item gnatum Jesum, cognomine Christum,
Quem Dominum nobis agnoscimus, et veneramur.

III. *Qui conceptus.*

Hunc Maria, afflatu divini numinis, alvo
Concepit virgo, peperit purissima virgo.

IV. *Passus sub Pontio.*

Et grave supplicium immeritus damnante Pilato
Pertulit, infami suffixus in arbore, mortem
Oppetiit, tumulatus humo est, claususque sepulchro,
Interea penetrat populatur ad infera regna.

V. *Tertio die.*

Mox ubi tertia lux mœsto se prompserat orbi,
Emersit tumulo superas redivivus in auras.

VI. *Ascendit.*

Inde palam ætheream scandit sublimis in arcem,
Illic jam dexter Patri assidet omnipotenti.

VII. *Iterum venturus est.*

Idem olim rediturus, ut omnem judicet orbem,
Et vivos pariter, vitaque et lumine cassos.

VIII. *Credo in Spiritum.*

Te quoque credo fide simili spirabile numen
Halitus, afflatusque Dei sacer, omnia lustrans.

IX. *Sanctam ecclesiam.*

Et te confiteor sanctissima concio, qua gens
Christigena arcano nexu coit omnis in unum
Corpus et unanimis capiti sociatur Iesu,
Hinc proprium nescit, sed habet communia concta.

X. *Remissionem peccatorum.*

Hoc equidem in cœtu sancto, peccata remitti
Credo, vel his sacro fuerint qui fonte renati,
Vel qui diluerint ultro sua crimina fletu.

XI. *Carnis resurrectionem.*

Nec dubito quin exanimata cadavera rursum
In vitam redeant, animas sortita priores.

XII. *Vitam æternam.*

Utraque pars nostri, corpusque animusque deinceps
Juncta simul, vitam ducent sine fine perennem.

Amor Dei.

Hæc est indubitata fides, cui pectore certo
Nixus, amabo Patrem super omnia cunctipotentem,
Qui me condi deritque, et in hunc produxerit orbem
Rursus amore pari Dominum complectar Iesum,
Qui nos asseruit, pretioque redemit amico.
Spiritum item Sanctum, qui me sine fine benigno
Afflatu fovet, atque animi penetralia ditans
Dotibus arcanis, vitali recreat aura.
Atque hic Ternio Sanctus, et omni laude ferendus
Toto ex corde mihi, tota de mente, supremis
Viribus, obsequio, meritoque coletur honore.
Hunc unum reverebor, et hoc semel omnis in uno
Spes mea figetur, hoc omnia metiar uno.
Hic propter sese mihi semper amabitur unus.

Amor sui.

Post hunc haud alia ratione, ac nomine charus
Ipse mihi fuero, nisi quatenus omnis in illum
Ille mei referatur amor, fontemque revisat.

Fuga peccati.

Culpam præterea fugiam pro viribus omnem.
Præcipue capitale tamen vitavero crimen,
Quod necat, atque animam letali vulnerat ictu.

Superbia, invidia, ira.

Ne fastu tumeam, ne vel livore maligno
Torquear, aut bili rapiar fervente, cavebo.

Gula, luxuria, pigritia.

Ne vel spurca libido, vel insatiabilis alvus
Imperet, enitar, nec turpis inertia vincat.

Avaritia.

Ne nunquam saturanda fames me vexet habendi,
Plus satis ut cupiam fallacis munera mundi,

Fuga malorum hominum.

Improba pestiferi fugiam commercia cœtus
Omnia, summo animi conatu, proque virili.

Studium pietatis.

Atque huc incumbam nervis, ac pectore toto;
Ut magis atque magis superet mihi gratia, virtus,
Augescatque pie divina scientia menti.

Deprecatio.

Orabo, superosque precum libamine paro
Placare admitar, cum tempore sedulus omni,
Tum vero eximie, quoties lux festa recurret.

Frugalitas victus.

Frugales epulæ semper, mensæque placebit
Sobria mundities, et avari nescia luxus.

Jejunium.

Servabo reverens, quoties jejunia nobis
Indicit certis ecclesia sancta diebus.

Mentis custodia.

Sancta uti sint mihi secretæ penetralia mentis,
Ne quid eo subeat fœdumve, nocensve, studebo.

Linguæ custodia.

Ne temere juret, ne unquam mendacia promat,
Turpia ne dictu dicat mea lingua, cavebo.

Manus custodia.

A furto cohibebo manus, nec ad ulla minuta
Viscatos mittam digitos, et si quid ademptum
Cuiquam erit, id domino properabo reddere vero.

Restitutio rei forte repertæ.

Id quoque restituam, si quid mihi forte repertum est,
Me penes haud patiar prudens, aliena morari.

Amor proximi.

Nec secus atque mihi sum charus, amabitur omnis
Proximus: est autem (ni fallor) proximus ille,
Quisquis homo est, ac sic ut amor referatur amici
In Christum, vitamque piam, veramque salutem.
Huic igitur fuerit quoties opus, atque necesse,
Sedulus officio corpusque, animumque juvabo,
Ut mihi succurri cupiam, si forsan egerem.
Id tamen in primis præstabo utrique parenti,
Per quos corporeo hoc nasci mihi contigit orbe.
Tum præceptori, qui me erudit, instituitque
Morigerus fuero, ac merito reverebor honore.
At rursus dulcisque scholæ, studiique sodales,
Semper (uti par est) sincero amplectar amore.

Assidua confessio.

Si quando crimen fuero prolapsus in ullum,
Protinus enitar, pura ut confessio lapsum
Erigat, ac justa tergatur noxia pœna.

Sumptio corporis Christi in vita.

Ast ubi sacrati me ad corporis atque cruoris
Cœlestes epulas pietasque diesque vocabit,
Illotis manibus metuens accedere, pectus
Ante meum, quanta cura studioque licebit,
Purgabo maculis, virtutum ornabo nitelis.

Morbus.

Porro ubi fatalis jam terminus ingruet ævi,
Extremumque diem cum morbus adesse monebit,
Mature sacramentis me armare studebo,
Atque his muneribus, quæ ecclesia sancta ministrat
Christigenis, reteget confessio crimina vitæ,
Sacrifico, sumam Christi venerabile corpus.

Hoc fac, et vives.

Erasmus also drew up in Iambic verse the inscription to signify the choice and preference of the child Jesus as the divine protector and governor of the school, which together with a Sapphic Ode imploring the divine aid and success to the foundation, was hung up in the *proscholia.*

Carmen Iambicum.

Non invenusto antiquitas insignate
Studii magistram, virginem
Finxit Minervam; ac litterarum præsides
Finxit Camœnas virgines,
Nunc ipse virgo matre natus virgine

Præsideo virgineo gregi;
Et sospitator hujus et custos scholæ.
Adsunt ministri virgines,
Pueros meos mecum tuentes angeli.
Mihi grata ubique puritas,
Decetque studia litterarum puritas.
Procul ergo sacro a limine
Morum arceant mihi literatores luem;
Nihil huc recipiant barbarum:
Procul arceant illiteratas literas;
Nec regna polluant mea.

Sapphicum Carmen.

Cœperit faustis avibus, precamur,
Semper augescens meliore fato,
Hic novæ sudor novus officinæ,
Auspice IESU.

Hic rudis (tanquam nova testa) pubes
Literas Graias, simul et Latinas,
Et fidem sacram, tenerisque CHRISTUM
Combibet annis.

Quid fuit læta sobolem dedisse
Corporis forma, nisi mens et ipsa
Rite fingatur, studiisque castis
Culta nitescat?

Stirpe ab hac sensim nova pullulabit
Civium proles, pietate juxta ac
Literis pollens, breviterque regno
Digna Britanno.

Ludus hic sylvæ pariet futuræ
Semina; hinc dives nemus undequaque
Densius surgens decorabit Anglum
Latius orbem.

At the upper end of the school was the image of the child Jesus, for which Erasmus composed this distich:

Discite me primum, pueri, atque effingite puris
Moribus; inde pias addite literulas.

He also composed the following as a sort of comment on the *Disce aut discede* now painted on the windows, and the tetrastic recommending the example of the child Jesus as the rule and original of wisdom and purity of life.

Carmen Phalecium.

Sedes hæc puero sacra est IESU,
Formandis pueris dicata; quare
Edico, procul hinc facescat, aut qui
Spurcis moribus, aut inerudita
Ludum hunc inquinet eruditione.

Aliud.

Aliud.

Quin hunc ad puerum pueri concurritis omnes?
Unus hic est vitæ regula fonsque piæ.
Hunc qui non sapiat, hujus sapientia stulta est:
Absque hoc vita hominis mors (mihi crede) mera est.

Another excellent composition of Erasmus, for the use of the Paul's scholars, was an oration in praise of the child Jesus, (which was spoken publicly in the

school, by one of the scholars, at the solemn time of visiting the school,) in an admirable strain of Christian eloquence, recommending the example of Jesus in his childhood, and exhorting the schoolfellows to follow his steps in all piety and virtue. This has been frequently published under the title of *Concio de puero Jesu, pronunciata a puero in schola Coletica nuper instituta Londini.* To which (no doubt at the like desire of dean Colet) were added two short prayers for the daily use of every scholar; one for docility, or aptness and application to learning; the other, for a blessing on his parents.

Precatio Puerilis pro Docilitate.

Audi preces meas, æterna Patris Sapientia, Domine Jesu; qui teneræ ætati docilitatis commodum addidisti: adde, quæso, ad naturæ propensionem auxilium gratiæ tuæ, ut literas ac liberales disciplinas citius perdiscam, sed tuæ gloriæ servituras; quarum adminiculis adjuta mens mea plenius assequatur cognitionem tui, quem nosse felicitatis humanæ summa est: utque ad tuæ sanctissimæ pueritiæ exemplum indies proficiam ætate, sapientia, et gratia apud Deum, et apud homines; qui vivis et regnas in consortio Patris et Spiritus Sancti, in æterna secula. Amen.

Precatio pro Parentibus.

Domine Deus, qui nos secundum te plurimum honoris parentibus nostris habere voluisti, nec inter officia pietatis minimum est pro parentum incolumitate tuam bonitatem interpellare; serva, quæsumus, parentes meos cum omni familia; primum in tuæ religionis amore, deinde tutos a corporis et animi perturbatione. Mihi vero præsta, ne quid illis ex me molestiarum accedat; denique ut ego illos, illi te propritium habeant, qui supremus es omnium Pater. *Amen.*

These prayers are still recited by the pupils of St. Paul's School at tha begining and end of each school day.

A few years after the publication and general use of these Rudiments, (which related chiefly to the more easy construing of Latin, and are now, with some improvement, placed in the common accidence after the eight parts of speech, though made before,) dean Colet proceeded to draw up, for the familiar use of his boys that other little tract on the Construction of the Eight Parts of Speech; which, with some alterations, and great additions, now makes up the syntax in Lilye's vulgar grammar. He sent it to the master of his school, Mr. Lilye, with a very ingenious and affectionate epistle, dated from his own house in the year 1513.

Methinks, my dear Lilye, I bear the same affection to my new school, as a parent does to his only son; to whom he is not only willing to pass over his whole estate, but is desirous even to impart his own bowels also: and as the father thinks it to little purpose to have begotten a son, unless by diligent education he raises him up into a good and useful man; so to my own mind it is by no means sufficient that I have raised (*i. e.* begotten) this school, and have conveyed my whole estate to it, (even during my own life and health,) unless I likewise take all possible care to nurture it in good letters and Christian manners, and bring it on to some useful maturity and perfection. For this reason, master, I send you this small treatise of the Construction of the Eight Parts of Speech; small indeed in itself, but such as will afford no small advantage to our scholars, if you diligently teach and explain it. You know Horace was pleased with brevity in the way of teaching; and I very much approve of

his opinion in that matter. If in the reading of the classic authors any notable examples to these rules shall offer themselves, it will be your part to mark them as they shall occur. Farewell. From my house, 1513.

Dean Colet had such humble thoughts of his own performance upon this subject, that he charged Mr. Lilye to amend it and improve it, and then return it into his hands: and even when master Lilye had finished his emendations upon it, the dean would still have it brought, if possible, to a greater perfection. So he sends the papers to the best critic in Europe, Erasmus; and importunes him to give the finishing strokes to it. Erasmus could not but comply, as he tells us, with such a friend, who might ask, and even command, any thing from him: and after he had engaged in it, he made so many amendments and alterations in it, that Lilye could not in modesty own it for his work; nor could Erasmus, in justice call it his own. However it was published in 1515, by Erasmus, with an epistle, dated from Basil, 3. cal. Aug. giving an honorable account of the great concern that Mr. dean Colet had for his school, and how careful he was to make the book pass through several hands, that it might be the more correct and complete.

When dean Colet had obtained from Erasmus so many good essays, both in poetry and prose, toward directing and securing the principles and morals of the boys; his next care was to procure some grammatical and critical performances, to lead and assist the boys in classic authors, and the literature contained in them. So walking one day in his garden with Erasmus, and hearing him mention his pains in drawing up two books, *De Copia Verborum ac Rerum*, to form the style and help the invention of young scholars; Colet asked him to dedicate that new work to his new school of Paul's. No, says Erasmus, your school is too poor and bare, I must have a patron of some ready money; and he telling him the charge he had been at in books and papers, and transcribers for that purpose; the dean answered, that he could not afford a just reward for those labors, but he would willingly give him fifteen angels; upon his repeating the promise, Erasmus did at last accept it. Dean Colet then complied readily with the expectation of Erasmus; who therefore dedicated the said books *De Copia*, &c. to him, in the following very eloquent epistle, dated from London, 3 cal. May, 1520.

I can not but extremely commend, my dear Colet, your singular and truly Christian piety; who have hitherto directed all the endeavours and labors of your life, not to the seeking of your own private interest, but to the consulting the good of your country, especially of your native city. Nor do I less admire your judgment, in choosing out two of the most proper methods for the full attainment of these glorious ends. For you saw the greatest fruits of love and charity would arise from the pains of instilling into the minds of people the knowledge of Christ by constant sermons, and a diligent teaching of the word of God: and therefore in this exercise you have now spent many years; I need not say with what praise and commendation, (for that you despise,) but I may say, with great profit to the hearers; upon which duty of preaching the gospel your own apostle St. Paul (otherwise modest, and sparing enough of his own praises) did often boast, and in a manner pride himself. Then for a second effectual means of answering the same public ends, you have founded a very beautiful and magnificent school, where, under the choicest and best approved masters, the British youth, in their tender years, might imbibe the Christian religion and good letters; as rightly apprehending, that from that tender age, in bud and blossom, the commonwealth might justly hope and expect, in time, the fruit in proportion; and that it would be an infinite advantage to mankind in every stage of life, to be well instructed from their cradle. And in both these

respects, who would not love and admire that generous greatness of mind, (I was going to say that holy pride,) in you, that you paid both these regards to your country in such sincere and disinterested a manner; that by so many elaborate sermons, in so long a course of years, you are not one farthing the richer; and though you sowed in such plenty your spiritual things, you reaped no man's carnal things? And again, though the expenses of your school were such an immense burden, that it might well have affrighted any noble peer, yet you took it all upon yourself; when the common sort of mankind are well pleased to admit of any assistance in such cases, you chose to spend your patrimony, your whole revenue, your very furniture and household goods, rather than to admit any one soul to be a partner in the glory of your ample foundation. What is this but to have a fatherly affection for all your children, that is, for all your fellow citizens? You become poor, to make them rich; naked, to clothe and adorn them; by your great labors, you well nigh destroy yourself, to make them grow in Christ; in a word, you spend yourself, to gain them unto salvation. Surely he must be very envious, who will not heartily favor such good works; and he must be notoriously impious, who shall dare to speak against them. He is an enemy to England, who would not, according to his power, help and promote them. For my own part, I am not ignorant how much I am indebted to this kingdom in general, and how much to you my special friend: and therefore I thought it my duty to bestow some small literary present toward the beautifying and adorning of your new school; and to dedicate these commentaries about the copiousness of words and things to the use and benefit of your school at Paul's; a work befitting the wants of young learners, and such, I hope, as may be very serviceable to them. Farewell, my best and most excellent Colet, Lond. 1512, 3 kal. Maii.

The last act of Erasmus's kindness to the dean's school, was to find out at Cambridge, (where he then was,) an usher, or second master, according to the founder's desire, to be under Mr. William Lilye. He inquired among the masters of arts there; but he could meet with none, it seems, that cared for, or were fit for that place, who would engage in it. They did not affect so laborious an employment, however honorable the terms might be. One of the seniors said, in a flouting way, *Who would lead such a slavish life among boys, in a school, if he can have any other way of living?* "I answered gravely," says Erasmus, "that the office of instructing youth in letters and good manners was a very creditable office, that our blessed Saviour himself did not despise the conversing with children; that no age was so capable of good instruction, and a man could no where bestow his pains with a better prospect of success, than at Paul's school, which was in the heart of the city, and center of the kingdom: besides, said I, if men have a true sense of religion, they must needs think, that there is no better way of pleasing and serving God than by the bringing of children to Christ; *i. e.* training them up to piety, and virtue, and knowledge. But upon this he turned up his nose, and said in a deriding manner, *If any man desires to be an absolute servant of Christ, he may go into a monastery, and take the vows of religion upon him.* I told him, Paul placed true religion in the works of charity; and the greatest charity was to do most good unto our neighbors: but he laughed at this, as a silly way of talking. *Well*, says he, *we students seem to have left all; we must be here in a state of perfection.* No, said I, a man can not be said to have left all, who, when he can do good to the world in any station, declines it, because he thinks it too mean for him: and so, to prevent any further dispute, I took my leave of him.

He had also in a former letter mentioned his fruitless endeavors to serve him in the affair of an usher. And he did not only in the former of these epistles, but whenever he had an opportunity, encourage men of letters to undertake

the laborious care of a grammar school, of which he often speaks in the highest commendation, as what exalts the schoolmaster to the highest dignity, whose business is to season youth in learning and religion, and raise up men for the service of their country. "It may be," says he, "the employment is accounted vile and mean in the opinion of fools, but in itself it is really great and honorable."

The aforesaid story about the aversion of men in the university to the drudgery of a grammar school, was by way of postscript to a letter, wherein Erasmus acquainted the dean that he had almost finished his book *de Copia*, (before mentioned,) and yet upon the subject of plenty he found himself in great want.

Having before mentioned Erasmus's pains, in seeking out for a proper person for the usher's place in Paul's school, I am now to add, that being not discouraged in his quest, he did at length very probably recommend Mr. John Rytwise; who being born at Sawl, in Norfolk, and bred at Eaton school, was now member of King's College, at Cambridge, and being retained by dean Colet, as usher to his school, was, for his ability and industry, very agreeable to the head master, Lilye.

Under these two excellent masters of Paul's school, if there was any fault in the managment of it, it was in the practice of too much severity, owing a little to the roughness of that age, and to the established customs of cruelty: somewhat too may be attributed to that austere temper of the founder, Dr. Colet; who verily thought there was a necessity of harsh discipline to humble the spirit of boys, to inure them to hardship, and prepare them for mortifications and other sufferings and afflictions in the world.

This severity appears by several passages in Erasmus's works; particularly in his tract of the Education of Youth, where he falls upon the rigid French schoolmasters of the Scotical clan, than whom nothing more cruel; and yet when reproved for this their cruelty, they replied, that this nation, (as was said of Phrygia,) is only to be amended by such a harsh proceeding. "Whether this be true or not, I will not dispute," says Erasmus, "but must own, there is a good deal of difference between one people and another as to this point; but much more in the disposition of children. You may kill some before you can make them one whit better by beating; and yet at the same time with good words, and good usage, you may do what you please with them. Of this temper I own myself to have been when a boy. And my master, of whom I was a great favorite, because he was pleased to have conceived great hopes of me, having a mind to get a thorough knowledge of my disposition, did therefore make a trial how I could bear a sound whipping. Upon this a fault was cooked up, of which, (God knows,) I never so much as dreamed; and accordingly I suffered the discipline of the school. Immediately I lost all manner of relish to my studies; and this usage did so damp my spirits that it almost broke my heart. From hence we may see, that these illiterate butchers, (to give them no better term,) ruin many a hopeful lad. These conceited, morose, drunken, cruel creatures, exercise this their severity as a piece of pleasure; and from another's pain take great satisfaction. They are, indeed, fitter for the business of a butcher, or hangman, than to be instructors of youth. And it is an observation not ill-grounded, that the most ignorant schoolmasters are generally the best at this exercise. For what is done in their schools? and in what do they spend their days? Nothing but noisy stripes and chidings."

Erasmus therefore approved of the practice of Speusippus, who caused the pictures of joy and gladness to be set round about his school; "to signify, (as the excellent archbishop Tillotson observes,) that the business of education ought to be rendered as pleasant as may be; and that children stand in need of all enticements and encouragements to learning and goodness imaginable: for, (as one says,) *Metus haud diuturni magister officii*, fear alone will not teach a man his duty, and hold him to it; but rather causes a lasting disgust to both learning and virtue, (and to use Erasmus's words,) *Virtutem simul odisse et nosse.*"

Thus we find Erasmus was of a contrary opinion; and more for the merciful and gentle way of education: who therefore was almost angry with the dean and his two masters. He judged of human nature according to his own share of it; and therefore was for the milder and softer ways of teaching. He seems to wish that boys could play and learn at the same time; and it is with approbation and pleasure that he tells this story of an English gentleman. "One day seeing his little son very fond of shooting, bought him a fine bow and arrows, which was painted with the letters of the Greek and Latin alphabet: and so for the but, or mark to shoot at; the like capital letters were drawn upon it: and when he hit a letter, and could tell the name of it, he had, besides the applause of the bystanders, a cherry, or some such trifle, for his reward."

Erasmus also was a great enemy to that laborious way of trifling and losing time, which had lately obtained in grammar schools; the going round as it were, in a mill, with sweat and noise, and getting by heart so many lines, without understanding the sense of them; too much the custom of idleness in England and Holland. He showed also a very good judgment; that boys should be sent early to a grammar school, before their minds are corrupted with any ill habit of tenderness, slothfulness, or other impediment of learning; and then that they should not be taken away too soon to the university, to be confounded with logic, before they rightly understand their grammar; and, in a manner, to unlearn the little they had learned at school.

Sir Thomas More likewise doth often complain of the then vulgar method of teaching grammar, and the intricate systems of it; particularly of the *Parva Logicalia* of Albertus, full of abstruse and trifling rules to puzzle and confound the poor boys.

But Erasmus was, above all, solicitous for the morals and virtuous dispositions of children. He would have them read no authors but what were clean and chaste, and be in no company but what was innocent and uninfected.

We find by one of the dean's statutes, he was much of his mind; for he orders several Christian authors, (*viz.*, Lactantius, Sedulus, Juvencus, &c.,) to be used in his school, for fear the childrens' morals should be corrupted by some of the heathen writers.

Erasmus also thought boys carried from school, as from their first vessel, that savor or tincture of good and evil that prevailed in all their following course of life, and gave them the right or the wrong bent and turn, to be wise and useful in their generation, or to be a sort of rakes and reprobates for ever.

He used to talk over this subject with dean Colet, upon the occasion of discoursing about the masters and scholars of Paul: and the dean fully declared himself of the same opinion, that boys would imbibe their principles and morals from the books and the company they conversed with. It is probable, that

upon this observation the dean made it a proverbial saying of his, "We are all such as our conversation is, and come habitually to practice what we frequently hear." This apothegm, or wise saying of dean Colet, is remembered by Erasmus in his elaborate collection of Adages; and is preferred before any of the sentences of the ancient philosophers.

On this solid foundation, with a Governing Body removed from the temptation of devoting the funds from their legitimate purpose, and with a liberty of action to meet the altered circumstances of a progressive society—with teachers, books, subjects, and methods of study, in advance of any existing school, St. Paul entered at once on a work of beneficence which entitles its founder to a high place among the benefactors of his country and his race. In the long and brilliant array of Paulines, trained by Lilly and his successors, we distinguish such names as the Norths, [Sir Edward, Francis, Lord Guilford, Dr. John, Sir Dudley, Frederic, Lord North, the premier from 1770 to 1782,] John Leland, William Camden, John Milton, Samuel Pepys, Benjamin Calamy, Roger Cotes, John the Great Duke of Marlborough, Sir Philip Francis, Bishop Hooper, Bishop Bradford, Halley the astronomer, Bishop Fisher, Sir Frederick Pollock, Sir Charles Wetherell, Lord Chancellor Truro, Professor Jowett, &c., &c.

Few public schools can claim to have educated more men who figure prominently in English history than this foundation of John Colet, and with such modifications in its governing body, and in the fundamental ordinances as this wise man anticipated to be necessary and provided for making on the advice of "good lettered and learned men," it will still contribute largely to the scholarship and statesmanship of England.

List of the High or Upper Masters of St. Paul's School.

1512.	William Lilly,	continued	10 yrs.	1657.	S. Cromleholme,	contin.	15 yrs.
1522.	John Ritwyse,	"	10 "	1672.	Dr. Thomas Gale,	"	25 "
1532.	Richard Jones,	"	17 "	1697.	John Postlethwayte,	"	16 "
1549.	Thomas Freeman,	"	10 "	1713.	Philip Ascough,	"	8 "
1559.	John Cooke,	"	14 "	1721.	Benjamin Morland,	"	12 "
1573.	William Malym,	"	8 "	1733.	Timothy Crumpe, d. 1737,		4 "
1581.	John Harrison,	"	15 "	1737.	George Charles, D.D.,	"	11 "
1596.	Rich'd Mulcaster,	"	12 "	1748.	Geo. Thicknesse, res'd,	"	21 "
1608.	Alexander Gill,	"	27 "	1769.	Richard Roberts, D.D.,	"	45 "
1635.	Dr. Alexand'r Gill,	"	5 "	1814.	John Sleath, D. D.,	"	24 "
1640.	John Langley,	"	17 "	1838.	Herbert Kynaston.		

Educational Staff in 1865.

High Master,—Rev. Herbert Kynaston, D. D.
Sub Master,—Rev. J. H. Lupton, M. A.
Third Master,—Rev. E. T. Hudson, M. A.
Assistant Master,—Rev. J. W. Shepard, M. A.
Mathematical Master,—E. A. Hadley, M. A.
French Masters,—M. T. Pagliardini, M. Stievenard.

The Royal Commisioners recommend the appointment by the Court of Assistants, of a Lecturer on Natural Science; and that the High Master be authorized to appoint a German teacher, and masters of Drawing and Music, and that half-yearly prizes be given for proficiency in these subjects, and in Natural Science.

II. REPORT OF HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS—1864.

History. The Commissioners do not go largely into the history of this school —quoting Erasmus's authority that "it was the best school in his time," and that it reached its palmy state in the time of Dr. Sleath, (1814–1838,) but that of late it has fallen off in its share of academical distinctions.

Endowments. The income of the property conveyed by deed and will of Dean Colet to the Mercers' Company, for the support of this school, at the time of the foundation, was £118, 4*s.* 7*d*, he having expended on the buildings £4,500. The income for 1860 was £9,549, 16*s.* 5*d.* Of this sum, £2,370 only were paid out as stipends to the masters. The Mercers' Company claim that they are beneficially interested in the surplus, which has now accumulated to a very large sum, and which might quadruple the educational objects of the foundation.

Government of the School. The Governing Body of the school is the Master, Wardens, and Fellows of the Mercers' Company, who annually choose "two honest and substantial men, called Surveyors of the School," whose main business seem to be, to enter the school on certain fixed days four times a year to pay the masters their quarterly stipends. The Governing Body *can* take the advice of "well-litterate and learned men, to supply any default as time and place and just occasion shall demand." The examinations are conducted by experts specially appointed, but with no authority beyond recommendations.

Masters and their stipends. In place of the high master, sub-masters, and chaplain of the original ordinances, there are at present seven masters; four classical, one for mathematics, and two for French. The present stipends paid out of the school revenues are as follows:—

High Master,	£900
Sub Master,	400
Third Master,	320
Fourth Master,	300
Mathematical Master,	200
French Master,	150
Assistant French Master,	100

"In addition to the above, the high master has the rents of two houses at Stepney, a residence for himself" contiguous to the school, "with rates, taxes, and repairs found him, and a gown every year." The other three classical masters have likewise residences, the rates and taxes of which are paid for them, and a "gown every year."

As the original number of eight classes fixed by the founder has been retained to the present day, it follows that each classical master, the high master included, has the entire charge of two classes of from fifteen to twenty boys each.

The Commissioners recommend the appointment of an additional classical master, to give the head master ample time for general superintendence and occasional examinations of the school. They also advise that provision be made for instruction in German, music, drawing, and natural science. And that all the teachers constitute a School Council, and that the head master have the appointment of his own assistants, who are now, including the head mas-

ter, appointed annually by the Board of Assistants, and removable at their pleasure.

Scholars. Every boy is a scholar on the foundation, from the moment of his admission, and the number is limited to 153—a faithful adherence to the letter of the Dean's ordinance, but not the spirit—as the boys are admitted on nomination by each member of the Court of Assistants, in rotation.

"The examination to which the nominees are subjected is of the most elementary description, and does not even reach the standard fixed in the original Ordinances, to say nothing of that higher standard which the altered condition of the times evidently suggests; and though we are informed that one distinguished member of the Court has introduced an important improvement in the case of his own nominees, it does not appear that this enlightened example has been followed by others. It is not too much to say that so far as regards the personal and intellectual fitness of its recipients, the benefits of a gratuitous education are conferred at hap-hazard, and with these benefits the chance, at least, of a handsome provision at the university. The contrast which this mode of appointment presents to the excellent and most successful system now in force at Eaton and Winchester is too obvious to need illustration; and without instituting comparisons which may seem invidious, it is clear that in this respect the practice of the school falls as far short of the ideas and requirements of the present age, as the directions of the founder rose above those of his own day.

We may even go further, and say that the present system of admission is positively injurious to the cause of education, inasmuch as it offers a temptation to parents to neglect the early training of their children; and we have it on the authority of the high master that this temptation is but too often yielded to. "Some," he says, "are occasionally brought to us even twelve years old, utterly ignorant of the first elements of the commonest knowledge." And the evil seems to be a growing one. Formerly the best boys came at eleven or twelve years of age, having previously had some good training; but now the case is reversed, and they either come a little younger, knowing nothing at all, or at the same age, knowing a little more; so that they must be taught their accidence."

These evils are indeed but the natural result of the vicious system of nomination, and can only be cured by introducing some form of competition among the candidates for admission. We should prefer that such competition should be unrestricted, as it is at Eaton or Winchester; but even in a modified form, it would be of great value; and in recommending the following scheme we are confident that we act in accordance with the intentions of the liberal and far-sighted founder.

Let two examinations be held annually, to be conducted either by two of the masters, or by two paid examiners appointed for the purpose. On the occasion of each examination, let any member of the Court who may desire it, have the privilege of nominating two or three candidates, so as to provide a body of fifty or sixty candidates for each ten or fifteen vacancies. After the examination, let a list be formed of the candidates in the order of merit, those standing first on the list to be first admitted, and those who fail to obtain admission in the course of the half year, to have one other chance, if their patrons choose to nominate them at the next half-yearly examination. This scheme to remain in force so

long as the school shall remain on its present site. We suggest eleven as the minimum and fourteen as the maximum age of candidates for admission.

Classes—Promotion. The scholars are distributed into eight classes, as fixed by Dean Colet, and the classes are counted from the lowest upward. The youngest boy was nine years and nine months, and the oldest eighteen and five months. The disparities of age in the middle classes is a very great injury to the principle of promotion—which depends on proficiency in classical scholarship, including, to some extent, history and geography. The Commissioners recommend that the conditions of promotion should be enlarged so as to include mathematics, and one modern language, as well as some allowance for proficiency in music and drawing. The rank stated before on the results of special examination and daily class marks in each study.

The exhibitions annually awarded are as follows:

One of £120 a year, tenable in any college in either university.

One of £100, and one of £80, founded by Lord Viscount Campden, and tenable only at Trinity College, Cambridge.

One or more of £50 tenable, without restriction, at Oxford or Cambridge.

These are awarded in accordance with results of the examination by examiners specially appointed every year, in which mathematical marks count as one to three of classical.

Besides these larger exhibitions, there is one of £30, and four of £10 each, at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge; five of £13 a year at Trinity, and two of £10 at St. John's College—each awarded on certain conditions.

Prizes are annually awarded for Greek iambics, Latin hexameters, Latin Essays and English Essays, but none for Natural Science, German, or French, Music or Drawing.

Rewards are also bestowed on pupils of St. Paul who obtain distinction at the university, or in competitive examinations instituted by parliamentary authority.

The Commissioners remark, that the exhibitions are too numerous and too easily obtained, and that the remedy is to change the mode and age of admission, and make the exhibitors tenable at any college. They also recommend that prizes should be given for proficiency in German, natural science, music and drawing. A writer in Blackwood's Magazine on the London Schools, remarks:

"St Paul's is lavish in prizes and exhibitions to the universities—too lavish in proportion to the amount of competition for them, as the head master boldly complains, and as the Commissioners fully agree. There are usually not more than five or six boys who go off to college every year, (a strangely small proportion, when it is considered that the 153 scholars are "almost invariably" the sons of clergymen or professional men—"West End boys,") and all of them get exhibitions. The captain of the year gets one of £120, for four years, tenable with any scholarship at any college in either university; the next has one of £100 to Trinity, Cambridge; the next £80, and the Court give as many of £50 each as may be required, "to any one that the examiners say is fit to go to the university." Besides this liberal provision, the Court of Assistants is in the habit of giving an *honorarium* to those who after leaving school obtain scholarships or honors at the universities, or what the Commissioners term "certain *supposed* distinctions in public competitive examinations." Not less than £160 was expended under this head in the year 1860. The Secretary, in draw-

ing up the report on these points, relieves his mind from the dryness of detail by a touch of satire not uncongenial to him. He observes in the name of the Commissioners that "the principle of giving a boy an exhibition on the mere certificate of the examiners that he is not absolutely unfit to hold it, is to us a novel one;" and that "to bestow a sum of money upon a young man as a reward for having obtained a considerable addition to his income, is a proceeding the reasons of which are not self-evident."

School Hours—Recreation. The school hours have been reduced from eight to six, an interval of only half an hour being allowed between the morning and afternoon session—which is too short for lunch and play. For boys coming from a distance a mid-day meal on the premises should be provided, and for all pupils, opportunities of out-door recreation in the intervals of school should be secured.

Discipline. The relations of boys to each other and to the masters in a day-school are much simpler than in a boarding school.

The same writer in Blackwood's Magazine, (for October, 1864, above quoted,) on this point of discipline, observes:

"In some points St. Paul's is what many parents would consider a model school. There is no fagging, and no flogging. "That truly British institution, the rod," is, to Mr. Commissioner Vaughan's astonishment, unknown in those happy precincts. There is only its weak substitute, the cane. Even that instrument, however, in able hands, had been made in former times to do a good deal of duty. Now, only six formal cuts are administered, always on the hand; but when the present head master first entered upon his duties, he found a good deal of what cricketers call "lively hitting to all parts of the field" going on—"especially about the legs and back;" so much so, that "the noise alone formed a great obstruction to the progress of the school duties." The reason why the young Paulines are neither fagged nor birched lies in the fact of the school being exclusively a day school. When boys only associate with each other in the school room, under the immediate eye of the masters, and separate immediately afterward for their several homes, any system of fagging would be neither possible nor desirable; and any exceptional instances of the kind the master would very properly check: so also, having little or no connection with the school except during lesson hours, the only offenses which usually come under the master's eye are those of idleness or disorder; the moral discipline of the boys must be supposed to rest wholly with the parents, and those graver moral offenses, to which the punishment of flogging in most public schools is now almost exclusively confined, can very rarely come under the master's cognizance. Of course, a mere day school education in a city like London, and where the boys, as at St. Paul's, spend perhaps two hours of the day in going and returning from school, with an additional hour's break in the middle of the day, when they are allowed to go wherever they please to get their lunch or dinner, is liable to the serious objection that the gravest moral misconduct may go on without either master or parent being aware of it. In fact, Dr. Kynaston fairly disclaims for himself any real responsibility for his scholars in any respect except their school work; "he has not an opportunity of observing the moral conduct of the boys, except in their general propriety of demeanor, and in matters of discipline between the master and the boys." This, with the want of social intercourse in the boarding house and the play ground, which has been already noticed, is the point in which London day school life falls so far short of the best public school training. Such school friendships as are

formed, depend, it is confessed, somewhat on the accident of "going home the same way," or some other chance association. Yet with all these disadvantages, one is pleased as well as surprised to find that it used to be said of the Paulines at the universities, that they "hung together more than other schools;" though it was "perhaps because they went up only three or four together, not like a large school, where they send up thirty or forty."

Religious Observances and Instruction. The chapel provided by the founder was consumed in the great fire and was not restored, and the chaplain was converted into an assistant master. The observances originally required were, (1.) that every child on entering the school shall salute the child Jesus, an image of whom well sculptured, stood at the upper end of the room; (2.) that at the time of the "saving," (elevation of the Host,) in the adjoining chapel, every child should remain kneeling; and (3.) that thrice in a day, (morning, noon, and evening,) they shall say the prayers duly prescribed. At present, at the beginning and ending of each school time, Latin prayers, including two of Erasmus's, are read by the captain. The Greek Testament is read, and certain scripture lessons got. But the boys depend on their parents and religious patrons for their religious education. Boys of all denominations are admitted provided they can produce certificates of baptism.

School Terms and Holidays. The school terms occupy forty weeks, and half holidays are Wednesdays and Saturdays, and whole holidays are Shrove Tuesday, Ash Wednesday, Queen's Birthday, Coronation Day, Fawkes' Day—Fifth of November, and Lord Mayor's Day, and such other days as are commanded by the sovereign, or a bishop.

Results as to Scholarship. The number of boys leaving for the universities is not more than five or six annually, and these principally to Cambridge. And while scholarships, prizes and other distinctions are won by Paulines, the Commissioners think "that much more ought to be done." The paucity of Fellowship, obtained at Trinity as compared with the Scholarships, seems to prove that first-rate attainments are at present rare, and confirms us in the view we have already expressed, of the necessity for a more effective and vigorous competition, and a better system of admission to the school. It is certain that the founder looked for great literary and educational results, and in past times his hopes were not disappointed. But of late years the school appears to have contributed but little to the educating body of either university, or to the wisdom of public schools, or the military service of the country.

Proposals for Improvement. The Commissioners recommend the sale of the present site, where the noise of the traffic seriously interrupts the work of the school, and affects unfavorably the health of the boys, and the erection of better and larger accommodations within the metropolitan district, so as to realize the design of Dean Colet, for a day-school for the dwellers in London, which might and ought to become the first in the city, and one of the first in Great Britain. To the school "the present system of admission by nomination should be abandoned, and the foundation thrown open, as at Eaton and Winchester, to perfectly unrestricted competition. Until this is done, St. Paul will not take that rank among schools which its founder designed, and which it can actually possess." They recommend a radical change in the Governing Body, and investing the high master with the power of appointing and dismissing all the assistant masters; and that the choice of masters be not restricted to former Paulines, nor to particular colleges.

As guardians indeed of the school property, the Court of Assistants appear as we have already remarked, to have performed their duty both honorably and efficiently; nor are we disposed to criticise too severely their distribution of its annual income, though we may think that in some important particulars its ample funds might have been, not more honestly, but more wisely, applied. But the administration of the school property is one thing, the government of the school is another; and assuredly a body constituted as is the Court of Assistants, can not be considered as in all respects "suitable and efficient for the purposes and duties" which the Governing Body of a school is or ought to be called upon to fulfill. The number is, in our opinion, too large, and as it is impossible that the members of the Court should be selected with any special view to their knowledge or experience of educational matters, or to their literary or scientific attainments, it must, we think, inevitably happen that the majority will consist of persons indisposed to trust to their own judgment in considering any plan that may be brought before them for the improvement of the school, or the extension of its field of usefulness. The tendencies of such a body will not be progressive, and it is, therefore, no matter of surprise that we should have had to echo the complaint of a Commission which reported more than a quarter of a century ago. The plan for the extension of the school which we have proposed, will probably necessitate important changes in the nature and working of the system, and it is evidently most desirable that the renovated institution should be watched during its early years with an attentive and intelligent eye.

That a school of such magnitude as this will be, should be administered with a view solely to the higher educational interests of the metropolis, is what the country has a right to demand of those who will have the distribution of its ample resources; but the recent history of St. Paul's School has shown that there has been a growing tendency in the Court of Assistants to narrow the sphere of its operation, and convert it more and more from a public school into a mere charitable foundation, useful doubtless to individuals, but of inferior public importance. It would be a grievous injury to the cause of classical education if the same principles of exclusive patronage were allowed to obstruct admission to a school which might and ought to become the first in London, and one of the first in Great Britain. More liberal views we know to be entertained by those members of the Court who have taken the most active part in the management of the school, and whose opinion is therefore most valuable; but the evidence of these gentlemen gives us little reason to suppose that their views are gaining ground among their colleagues.

These, in our opinion would, under circumstances otherwise favorable, be valid reasons for recommending some modification in the Governing Body, similar in principle to the changes proposed in those of Eaton, Winchester, and Westminster. The time seems to have arrived when more formal and systematic effect should be given to the memorable ordinance of the founder, that on important occasions recourse should be had to the advice of "well-literate and learned men." The spirit of this ordinance would be preserved by such a reconstitution of the Governing Body as should include on the one hand the Master, Wardens, and Surveyors, with perhaps one or two elective members of the Mercers' Company, and on the other an equal number of persons extraneous to the Company, to be selected by the Crown in consideration of personal eminence or special fitness to superintend a place of liberal education.

IX. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ITALY.

Introductory to an outline of the system of public instruction projected for Italy under its new political organization, we present the best summary we could collect of the condition of education in the different states in 1850.

1. SUMMARY OF CONDITION ON EDUCATION IN 1850.

ITALY comprises,

1. The kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, with	5,068,000	inhabitants.
2. The kingdom of Sadinia, ...	5,292,000	"
3. The Duchy of Parma, ...	479,900	"
4. The Duchy of Modena, ...	490,000	"
5. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany, . . .	1,752,000	"
6. The Republic of San Marino, . . .	8,200	"
7. The State of the Church, ...	2,970,000	"
8. The kingdom of Naples, ...	8,373,000	"

In all of these States there is legal provision made for public education, besides a large number of schools connected with religious houses and charitable institutions. The institutions and endowments for charitable purposes exceed in number and amount those of any other portion of Europe.

I. LOMBARDY AND VENICE.

The system of public instruction in the Austrian dominions in Italy, is substantially the same as in Austria proper. It embraces, 1. elementary schools of two grades; 2. technical schools; 3. gymnasiums; 4. lyceums; and 5. universities. The following account of the system and the schools, is taken from a valuable work on "Italy and the Italians, by Frederic Von Raumer.

According to the principal law on the subject of schools of an inferior order, there are two gradations of elementary schools, from those with one class to those with three or four. To these are added what are called technical schools. In the lower elementary schools the first principles of religion are taught, together with reading, writing, and arithmetic. The higher elementary schools are intended for those who purpose devoting themselves to the arts or sciences. The technical schools are chiefly intended to prepare youth for commerce and agriculture. The law compels parents to send their children to school between the ages of six and twelve, and a fine of half a lira per month is incurred by those who neglect to do so; but is not enforced in Lombardy. Wherever circumstances allow of its being done, the education of boys is separate from that of girls. A building for school, and the necessary supply of desks, forms, &c., must be provided by the commune. In the cold and mountainous districts only are the school-rooms warmed in winter. The books prescribed for these schools vary in price from forty-two centesimi to a florin. In the higher elementary schools, religion, orthography, Italian grammar, the elements of Latin, mathematics, natural philosophy, geography, and natural history, are taught. In the technical schools instruction is given in modern lan-

guages,—English, German, and French. The clergy are recommended, not merely to give religious instruction, but also to take charge of some other of the lessons. The general superintendence of religious instruction, is committed to the bishops. For opening a private school, an express permission must be obtained from government.

The elementary schools in Lombardy* amounted

In number, in	1835	1836	1837
to	4,422	4,470	4,531
including private schools,	701	995	726

In 1837, there remained only 66 communes without an elementary school for boys, so that, if the education be not general among children, the fault must arise less from the want of public institutions than from the want of good-will. The outlay for elementary schools amounted, in 1837, to 507,000 florins. Of this 21,000 florins were derived from endowments, 423,000 were contributed by the communes, and 63,000 were defrayed by the State. Of every 100 schools, 84 were public, and of every 100 pupils, 59 were boys and 41 girls. About three-fifths of the children of a suitable age attend school; and of those that do so, 91 per cent. attend public, and 9 per cent. private schools. The teachers (including 2,226 clergymen, directors, and school authorities) amount in number to 6,284. The infant schools are attended by 2,026 children, and directed by 93 teachers; their yearly revenues amount to about 16,000 florins. Thus we every where perceive the cause of education advancing, and the several communes manifest their praiseworthy sympathy by constantly increasing votes for the support of schools.

In immediate connection with the higher order of elementary schools are the gymnasiums, of which some are public, some communal, some in immediate dependence on the bishops, and other private institutions. In Lombardy, in 1837, there were 10 imperial gymnasiums, with 96 teachers and 2,865 pupils; 8 communal, with 1,291 pupils. The private gymnasiums were attended by about 1,168 pupils. None but teachers who have been strictly examined are allowed to give lessons in a private gymnasium, the pupils must all be entered on the list of a public school, to which they are bound to pay a yearly contribution of two florins, and at which they must submit to periodical examinations. Private gymnasiums must adopt the course of study prescribed for public institutions, and must not allow their pupils to remain less than the regulated period in each class. Those intended for the church, for the medical profession, or for that of architecture, must be educated at a public school, and those intended for the law are subject to a variety of stringent rules.

All the elementary schools of Lombardy are placed under an inspector, and another officer has the gymnasium under his control. All vacancies for teachers are thrown open to public competition, and it is only after examination that they are confirmed in their appointments by a government order. To every gymnasium are in general attached a rector, a religious teacher, four professors of grammar, and two of humanity, (*d' umanità.*) To limit the number of those who crowd into the learned professions, it has of late years been prescribed that no pupil shall be received at a gymnasium before his tenth or after his fourteenth year. From this regulation, however, constant exceptions are made, as it has been found that a rigid enforcement would have the effect of excluding the cleverest and most industrious children.

Corporal punishments have every where been abolished. On Sundays all the pupils of a gymnasium attend church. Not more than 80 pupils must be included in the same class. Thursday is always a holiday. On each of the other five days there are only four school hours. The holidays, in addition to those on occasion of the church festivals, last from the 9th of September to the 1st of November.

The regular couse of study in each gymnasium last six years, during which the pupil has to pass through four classes of grammar and two of humanity. In the first grammatical class are taught: Italian, the rudiments of Latin, arithmetic, geography, and religion. In the second class, the same course is continued, but Roman antiquity, and the geography and history of the Austrian monarchy, are added. In the third grammatical class, Greek is added; and in the fourth, Latin

* In 1834. there were in the Venetian part of the kingdom 1,438 schools, with 81,372 pupils, and 1,676 male and female teachers.

prosody. In the first humanity class are taught rhetoric, poetry, algebra, geography, history, and religion; in the second, the same subjects continue to employ the pupil. A pupil who does not intend to study medicine, or to go into the church, may obtain a dispensation from Greek.

In every branch of study, the school-books are prescribed by the higher authorities. Latin and Greek are taught exclusively through the medium of anthologies and selections, in which there are difficult extracts intended for the more advanced pupils.

A new law was promulgated in 1838 on the subject of technical or commercial schools. These are intended to prepare the future trader and mechanic, and are therefore to give a practical direction to their studies, always keeping in view the interests of the Austrian monarchy and those of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The towns in which these schools are established must furnish a suitable building and all the requsite furniture, &c.; the rest of the charge is defrayed by government. Each teacher gives from 4 to 15 lessons weekly, and their salaries vary from 400 to 800 florins. Each school is divided into three classes, into the junior of which a boy may pass from the grammatical first class of a gymnasium. In the first class of a technical school, (the first class always means the lowest,) the pupil is *obliged* to attend weekly 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian grammar, 3 of geography, 4 of mathematics, 3 of zoology, 6 of drawing, 4 of writing, in all 25 lessons, of an hour each; in addition to these, there are 2 lessons of German, and 2 of French, the attendance on which is optional. In the second class, botany is substituted for zoology. In the third class are given 2 lessons of religion, 3 of Italian style, 7 of natural philosophy, 3 of mineralogy, in all 15 obligatory lessons. In addition to these, there are 5 lessons of chemistry, 5 of commercial science, 5 of book-keeping, and 3 of commercial correspondence. Of these the pupil may choose whether he will attend the lessons of chemistry and one of the other three subjects, or whether he will attend the last three without chemistry.

There is also a special school for

Veterinary surgery, with 5 teachers, 41 pupils, and an expenditure of 71,643 lire.

Chemistry, with 3 teachers, 15 pupils, and an expenditure of 6,750 lire.

Midwives, with 3 teachers, 71 pupils, and an expenditure of 24,432 lire.

This last institution is in connection with the lying-in and foundling hospitals.

For future theologians, on leaving the elementary schools, distinct institutions are provided in the episcopal seminaries, of which there is one attached to every see. The largest, at Milan, in 1837, contained 403 pupils; the smallest, at Crema, only 10. In these the teachers are appointed by the bishop, but satisfactory proof of their capacity must be given to the temporal authorities.

Mr. Von Raumer adds the following remarks:

In the first place, the elementary instruction is so simple, and the natural progress so evident, that there appears in this respect, to be no very important difference between the German system and that of Lombardy. The only thing to be wished for is, that the number of good teachers may increase in proportion to the number of pupils. To the credit of the clergy be it said that, in addition to the regular hours of religious instruction, they sometimes take charge of one or two other branches, a course perfectly consistent with the duties of their profession.

Secondly—the limited number of school-hours at the gymnasiums is explained by the work which the children are expected to do at home, and the incompatibility of an Italian temperament with long confinement. The work to be done at home is, however, much less considerable than at a public school in Germany; and the vivacity of the Italian temperament might just as reasonably be adduced as a motive for subjecting to a more strict and continuous discipline. Besides, in other parts of Italy, we shall see that the number of school-hours is greater. On other grounds, therefore, must be decided the question, whether an increase in the number of lessons be desirable or not; and also, whether it would not be better to give two half-holidays in the week, as with us, than to sacrifice one whole day out of six, as is done in Lombardy.

Thirdly—I have to observe that under the word grammar is included not only Latin, but every instruction in the native language. Greek is thrown too much

into the back-ground; and, however laudable it may be to attend to the geography and history of Austria, it may be much doubted whether it be well judged to assign to them so marked a precedence before every other kind of historical instruction.

Fourthly—the reading nothing but fragmentary collections is defended on the ground that it is expedient to make a pupil acquainted with a variety of authors, and with the different kinds of Latin and Greek. It must be owned that, in our German schools, where a contrary system prevails, many a young scholar becomes acquainted with all the delicacies of one author, without being able even to construe another, with whose particular style he happens not to be acquainted. It would perhaps be better to combine the two systems, and not to make the acquirement of dead languages the main object, where the student is in point of fact intended for some more active pursuit; otherwise, the student, instead of having his character strengthened and his judgment improved by the full impression of ancient greatness, is likely to conceive a disgust of all classical studies, and never to take a Greek or Roman into his hand again, when once he has left school. Who will deny that such is with us the rule, and the contrary the exception?

Fifthly—It may be doubted, perhaps, whether it be advisable to draw the future theologian, like other students, into the full current of temporal affairs; and it is just as doubtful whether it is advisable to detach him completely from the world, and yet require him, when he comes to mingle in it, to understand, to estimate, and to guide it.

Sixthly—Whether our public schools in Germany are not more efficient, and whether they do not prepare the student better for the university than those of Lombardy are questions that do not admit of a doubt. On that very account, however, the lyceum and the course of philosophy have been established.

Seventhly—to a most important point, namely, that in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom all public instruction, whether in the elementary schools, or at a gymnasium, a lyceum, or a university, is *altogether gratuitous*. I am aware of the motives by which the demand of payment is usually justified; nor do I require to be told that what is given away rarely fails to be undervalued; nevertheless, there is something gratifying in the idea of education without any cost to the parents: much anxiety is thus prevented, as well as many little selfish manœuvres.

The following notice is given of the lyceums and universities.

It is generally thought that the gymnasium affords but an insufficient preparation for the study of divinity, law, or medicine, and even for those who, without purposing to devote themselves to either of those professions, intend to compete for appointments to certain public offices. For such students, therefore, a two years' course is opened at the lyceum, or in the philosophical faculty of a university. Before completing this course, a student can not be entered for either of the three other faculties. In Prussia we have no corresponding regulation. The subjects here treated of at the lyceums are with us either attended to at the public school, or may be studied at the university simultaneously with divinity, jurisprudence, or medicine. Here no student can enter a lyceum without a certificate of maturity from the gymnasium; nor can he be entered for either of the three faculties, without a certificate to show that he has passed through the intermediate two years' course, which is never curtailed, though, with respect to some of the lectures, it is left to the option of the students to attend them or not, as they please. The discipline under which they are kept is tolerably strict. They must not go to a theater, ball, or any place of public amusement, without express permission, nor are circulating libraries allowed to lend them novels or the *Conversations-Lexicon*. On Sundays they must go to church, and six times a year they must confess and receive the communion. There are in Lombardy seven imperial lyceums, one civic at Lodi, and eight episcopal, connected with the seminaries. They are attended by 1,600 students. The imperial lyceums cost the government about 137,000 lire annually.

In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom there are two universities, those of Padua and Pavia, where the course of study is under the control of the directors of the several faculties, who in their turn are responsible to the governor of the province. The directors propose candidates to fill up vacancies, suggest modifications in the

course of study, see that the professors arrange their lectures in a suitable manner, that they do not wander away from their subjects, and that they lead a moral life; the directors are also to examine class-books and academical discourses, to be frequently present at the lectures, to take part in the deliberations of the senate, to call the faculties together, and to superintend the election of a dean.

These directors, who are not professors, are said to have all the real power in their hands, the rector being a representative without influence, and the functions of the dean being confined to the care of some matters of a purely scientific character. Every thing belonging to discipline and the maintenance of order is also in the hands of the directors.

An ordinance relating to the university of Padua, dated the 8th of April, 1825, declares that institution to be immediately under the *gubernium*. A general assembly includes not only the directors, deans, and professors, but likewise all doctors who have graduated at Padua, and reside in the city. The rector is elected annually from the different faculties in succession, and not only the professors but also each of the doctors just mentioned has a voice in the election, and is himself eligible to the dignity. The senate selects three candidates from the faculty next in succession, after which a majority of votes determines the election, subject to the confirmation of the government. The rector calls the senate together twice a year, when a report is read of all that has been done by him during the interval. His power, however, in this respect, is greatly cramped, especially by means of the directors. The dean must be a doctor of the faculty to which he belongs, but, in that of law or medicine, must not himself be a professor. In the other faculties, professors are eligible to the dignity of dean. The dean is to keep an historical chronicle of every thing relating to the faculty. All lectures are gratuitous, with the exception that twelve lire are paid by the higher order of nobles on entering their names, nine by the inferior nobles, six by a wealthy citizen, and three by any other student.

With respect to the relation between doctors and professors, the law says: the faculties are considered as academical corporations, distinct (*separati*) from the professors. Although the doctors, therefore, do not belong to the body of instructors, they have a central point of union, to consult together, and place their suggestions before the authorities. They likewise serve the state, as an assembly of well-informed men, whose opinion may be consulted and listened to.

The university of Padua has the four customary faculties. The senate consists of the following persons: the rector, four directors, four deans, and four ancients among the professors. There are six ordinary professors of divinity, eight of law, twelve of medicine, nine of the philosophical sciences, besides a few deputies and assistants, but not, as with us, a set of extraordinary professors and private tutors. The general assembly, including the doctors, consists of twenty-four theologians, fifty-seven jurists, twenty-four physicians, and thirty philosophers.

The university course, for divinity in law, lasts four years; for medicine and surgery, five; and for those who study surgery only, three or four years. Every half-year the students are examined. At the end of two years they obtain the dignity of bachelor, and at the end of three, that of a licentiate. The dignity of doctor is not conferred before the end of the fourth year, nor till after a general examination. The candidate must publicly defend a Latin thesis, but no mention is made of any essay required to be printed.

The university of Pavia has no theological faculty, but in every other respect the same constitution as that of Padua. There are at present thirty-eight professors, three adjuncts, and eleven assessors. Of these eleven professors and two adjuncts belong to the philosophical faculty; four professors and one assessor to the mathematical division of the faculty; eight professors and one adjunct to the legal; and fifteen professors and ten assessors to the medical faculty.

The mathematical division of the philosophical faculty is chiefly intended for the education of land-surveyors and engineers. A student can enter it on completing his course of philosophy.

I will only add a few brief remarks as when treating of schools, by way of instituting some comparison between the German and Italian universities.

In the first place, the lyceum and the course of philosophy owe their institution evidently to a consciousness that a blank existed between the degree of information acquired at a gymnasium and that necessary for prosecuting the study of either of

the other three faculties; but here a doubt suggests itself, whether it would not be simpler, more economical, and more beneficial, to assign to the gymnasium a part of the instruction afforded by the lyceum, and the remainder to the university itself. I scarcely think it well-judged to compress all these subjects into the space of two years, and then to confine the student entirely to matters connected with his intended profession, without allowing him the relief of variety. Would it not be better to permit the young men, as is done at our German universities, to attend philosophical and historical lectures, simultaneously with those on theology, medicine or law? It is true that, owing to the greater liberty allowed to our students, they frequently absent themselves from all lectures but those connected with the pursuit on which their future livelihood is to depend. In such cases it is not to be denied that the stricter regulations of Italy may be preferable.

The director of a faculty is an officer wholly unknown with us, and the object of his appointment is evidently the maintenance of a stricter discipline. The enlargement of the faculty by the admission of resident doctors is another arrangement unknown in Germany. It may have the effect of avoiding much partiality and exclusiveness; but it may be questioned whether, on the other hand, it does not tend to weaken the corporation.

Many objections might be made to the number and succession of the lectures, and certainly our better universities in Germany present greater variety and more completeness. The Italians, on the other hand, might argue, that this variety is carried much too far with us, breaking up the course of study into a multitude of fragments, in a manner quite unsuitable to the student's advancement.

A new law was promulgated on the 6th of September, 1838, for the foundation or restoration of two academies of arts and sciences at Venice and Milan, and measures are now in progress to effect the realization of this plan. Each academy is to comprise three classes: real members, honorary members, and correspondents. The first are to receive salaries of 1,200 lire, and the further assistance to be afforded has, for the present, been fixed at 45,000 lire.

II. Sardinia.

The system of public education embraces, 1. elementary schools in each commune, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction is given. 2. Upper schools in the large towns under the direction of the clergy. 3. Four universities. 4. Special schools of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of civil engineering, &c. We have no recent statistics respecting these schools. The following notice of higher instruction is taken from the *Annuarie des deux Mondes*, for 1851.

Public instruction under the regime of the old monarchy was not without its fame. The university of Turin, founded so long ago as the 15th century, was fully organized by the middle of the 16th, and gradually became the center for students from all northern Italy. It owes its rapid progress much to the careful solicitude of Victor Amadeus II. In 1720, it had but 800 students; in 1730, two thousand. This university was the focus of intellectual activity in Piedmont, the other institutions for instruction having been but slowly developed.

The system of exclusive privileges, the varying laws, the influence of a hierarchy which mainly governed the elementary schools, all the assemblage of feudal and ecclesiastical institutions embracing government and society, naturally caused great confusion in the organic principles of instruction.

A serious and fundamental reform was attempted in 1847 by the royal decrees of 30th November. The old administration of the university was abolished, and a special ministry of public instruction created. The formation of a high council to assist the minister completed on the 27th December, following this effort of the State to centralize the system by placing it under uniform and stricter supervision. But the present organization only dates from the law of 4th October, 1848, which, inspired by the recent revolution in the principles of political legislation, imprinted upon the institutions for public instruction, of every grade, a new type. The duties of the ministry and of the various councils destined to act under its orders were fixed by this law. All the universities, secondary and elementary

schools of the kingdom, are placed under the control of the minister of public instruction. Schools for the deaf and dumb, those of agriculture, of arts and manufactures, of veterinary medicine, forests, civil engineering, of the marine and a few other special schools, are the only exceptions to the rule laid down by this new law. Subsequent legislation has developed these principles. The high council consists of nine regular members appointed for life, and five transient whose term of service is three years. Both classes are chosen by the king among professors either retired or in service, of the various faculties of the kingdom, excepting two of the regular councillors who must be selected among the *savans* or distinguished literary men. Each university, and each faculty, is directed by a council. In each university exists a permanent board, chosen out of its council, charged with direction and supervision of the institutions for secondary instruction. Every college that has a professorship of philosophy has also its council. Elementary instruction is directed by one general council for the whole kingdom whose authority is in the island of Sardinia delegated to the university councils, aided by a board of elementary instruction in each province.

In all the provinces, the State is represented by a sort of rector who is entitled *regio proveditore*. But the movement of this system is derived from the minister and his high council. The resemblance of this to the former high council of the universities in France is obvious. The Piedmontese council prepares and examines projects of laws and regulations relating to public instruction, it arranges a general plan for studies, it examines and approaches the outlines of the courses of study presented to it by the university boards, and also the class-books. The reports of inspectors of schools and scientific institutions, those of the university boards and of the provincial councils presiding over elementary instruction, are also submitted to examination by the high council. Among the most important duties of this body, we may number the obligation of presenting to the minister, once in three years, a general report upon the condition of instruction in the kingdom, and among its most important powers, that of deciding upon questions of discipline, and upon charges preferred against professors of universities and secondary schools, and elementary inspectors, the accused party to be heard.

There are in the kingdom four universities, for Piedmont one at Turin, and one at Genoa; for the island of Sardinia two others, one at Cagliari, the other at Sassari. These universities confer the higher academic degrees. The university schools of Chamberi and Nice, dependencies of the Turin university, have professorships of law and medicine, and students of medicine can pass two years of the required course in them. Each royal college established at an episcopal see, has a faculty of theology for instruction of youth designed for the priesthood. Nearly all the chief provincial towns have a professorship of civil law for those intended to be notaries or advocates.

University instruction is divided into five faculties, theology, law, medicine and surgery, belles-lettres and philosophy, physical and mathematical science. These are subdivided nearly as in the French plan. The most important differences are that of the study of canon law, a branch of the law faculty, and that of the somewhat confused organization of teaching in philosophy. A distinction is made between rational and positive philosophy. The course of positive philosophy which occupies three years includes but one year of philosophy properly so called, moral; the other three are devoted to various branches of exact sciences. Embraces with geometry, general chemistry, mineralogy, zoology and physics, *ancient literature* and *modern Italian*.

Mr. Von Raumer, in his "Italy and the Italians," remarks:

A collection of laws for the regulation of schools was printed in 1834. According to these, the instruction given in the elementary schools is gratuitous. The lessons begin and end with prayer. The gymnasiums (*collegi*) are divided into six classes: three junior, one of grammar, one of humanity, and one of rhetoric. The branches of instruction and class-books are prescribed. Besides the ordinary teachers, every gymnasium has a prefect, who is often changed, and whose duty it is to enforce discipline among teachers and scholars, and a spiritual dire. Under the last named, the following exercises occur daily. Every morning; 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. the hymn, *Veni creator*;

3. according to the season, the Ambrosian hymn, and other extracts from the *Ufficio della beata Vergine;* 4. mass; 5. hymn of the litanies of the holy virgin; 6. spiritual instruction; 7. the psalm *Laudate Dominum*, and a prayer for the king. In the afternoon: 1. a quarter of an hour of religious reading; 2. hymn and prayer; 3. three quarters of an hour explanation of the catechism. The school lasts 3½ hours in the forenoon, and 2½ hours in the afternoon. Thursday is a whole holiday. Where the funds of the school are insufficient, a boy in the three junior classes pays 15 francs a year, and in the upper classes, 20 francs, besides 8 or 12 francs on being promoted from one class to another. The salaries of the teachers are paid partly by the government and partly by the towns, and amount to from 750 to 1,200 lire per annum, with some trifling addition in case of long service. The retiring pensions also depend on the period of service, but the highest pension never exceeds the lowest salary. Where the ability is the same, clergymen are always to be preferred. No teacher must cause any thing to be printed either in or out of the kingdom without submitting his manuscript first to the ordinary censorship, and to the censorship of the *riforma*. The *magistrato di riforma* is a kind of ministry of public instruction, and has a *consiglio di riforma* under it in every province. Among its other duties, occurs that of prescribing what books shall be used in instruction, although, in the episcopal seminaries, and some others under the guidance of ecclesiastical orders, such as the Jesuits, the Barnabites, &c., it has little influence.

The scholars of the gymnasiums are not allowed to read any books which have not been either given or furnished by the prefect. They are forbidden to swim, to frequent theaters, balls, coffee or gaming houses; to perform in private plays, and the like; and it is the business of the police to see these prohibitions attended to.

There is in Turin one head university, with four faculties; and there are secondary universities (*università secondarie*) in Chamberi, Asti, Mondovi, Nizza, Novara, Saluzzo, and Vercelli, either for the study of medicine alone, or for medicine and jurisprudence together. The universities have no legal right to make proposals for the appointment to vacant places, and there is consequently no canvassing. This is by some regarded as an advantage, though it is stated on the other hand that hasty and partial nominations are more frequent on this system.

There are three academical degrees, those of bachelor, licentiate, and laureate; and the holidays are on the whole more frequent than with us.

The students are not only under strict scientific superintendence, but also under the close *surveillance* of the police. No student is allowed to choose his dwelling or leave it without permission of the prefect, who often appoints the place where he is to lodge and board.

Whoever wishes to receive students into his house must undertake the responsibility for their observance of the laws which regulate their going to mass and confession, fasting, and even their clothing and their beards. Neglect of these rules is punished by exclusion from the examinations, or from the university itself.

With respect to the great abundance of devotional exercises, I may be permitted to remark that, though the reference to piety and devotion, as to that which should mingle in all sciences and in every action of our lives, be undoubtedly praiseworthy, and for Catholics it is right to prefer Thomas à Kempis to Ovid as a school-book, I can not help doubting if the constant repetition of these prescribed forms be really advisable. Without considering that many must regard them as mere loss of time, it would be scarcely possible to avoid one of two errors—either that of an over-estimation of mere external observances, and a consequent disregard of true inward holiness, or an indifference and disgust easily excited in young minds, when the highest and holiest subjects become matters of daily and mechanical routine.

In the second place, that the school instruction should devolve wholly on Catholic clergymen may have one advantage in an economical point of view, since, being without families, they are better able to maintain themselves on a small income; but it can scarcely escape the objection of bestowing only of one-sided education, or avoid the danger of having many branches of instruction under the superintendence of those who are themselves little instructed; unless ecclesiastics should be obliged to devote themselves to studies foreign to their vocation.

The existence of a lurking wish to extend and strengthen by this means the power and dominion of the church is the more evident, as establishments for education are daily arising, which are entirely withdrawn from temporal influence. I repeat that such a system as this appears to me quite as one-sided and disadvantageous as the opposite one.

In the third place, what is called the philosophical course, is here, still less than in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, such as to afford any compensation for the meagerness of the education afforded at the gymnasium. How, for instance, can a single lesson or lecture a week in Greek grammar make amends for many years' academical study of that difficult language, or afford any preparation for the studies of the university, in themselves meagre enough? Besides, there is merely a choice offered to the quasi-student, whether he will learn Greek or history. Should he prefer history, he must renounce Greek altogether.

Fourthly, much might be said against the subordinate universities above-mentioned. They were established at a time when the unquiet dispositions of the Turin students had turned towards politics, and occasioned much trouble to the government, which endeavored to weaken them by scattering them thus over the country. It may be doubted, nevertheless, whether this lasting resource against a merely temporary evil has proved really effectual.

It is at all events likely that the number of ignorant students has been thereby increased, and the instruction deteriorated from the diminution of the number of learned professors. The German universities sometimes exhibit the dangers of too much liberty, those of this country the evils of too much restraint. The time must come in a young man's life when even paternal authority must cease—much more, then, the discipline of a school.

III. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany.

The means of education provided by the central government, municipal authorities, or charitable endowment are:—1. infant schools, of which, in 1850, there were 22, numbering over 2,000 children. 2. Elementary schools, of which there is at least one supported by the commune, and a number of schools of mutual instruction supported by voluntary associations. In these schools, there is no charge for tuition. 3 Schools for secondary education embracing 4 colleges for nobles, 16 gymnasiums or classical schools, 16 seminaries or boarding schools for girls, called *conservatori*. The seminary at Florence, has 600 boarders. In all of these schools there are over 5,000 students. 4. Three universities, viz.: at Pisa, (founded in 1138,) with 580 students; at Siena, (founded in 1331,) with 300 students; and at Florence, (called the academy, and founded in 1428,) with 230 students.

Mr. Von Raumer, remarks: "In so highly polished a land as Tuscany, the value of education and instruction has by no means escaped the attention of the government and of individuals; yet much still remains to be done, and schools and universities appear to be very scanty in comparison with the number and revenues of the clergy and especially of the monks. Indeed, the Italians do not acquire knowledge by means of their universities, but in spite of them; and how can governments be surprised if many, both old and young, have either no ideas at all, or false ones, of passing events, of social relations, states, constitutions, and governments, since every genuine avenue to science and experience is cut off from them by the perverse one-sidedness and silly apprehension of their rulers!"

IV. States of the Church.

The Roman or Papal States, or States of the Church, are divided into 21 provinces, of which those lying west of the Apennines are styled *Legations*, while that of Rome, bears the name of Comarca. This territory was, at various times—most of it from 755 to 1278, donated to the Holy See. The general supervision of all the educational institutions is committed to a Commissioner of Studies, while the local management of the elementary schools is assigned to a committee, of which the parish priest is one. The means of elementary education are very generally provided either by parish schools, or by schools conducted by various religious orders. Higher education is dispensed by seven universities, several of which are among the oldest in the world.

The institutions for elementary education in the city of Rome, are:

1. Orphan Asylums. Of these there are a large number richly endowed and well regulated, of which some are for boys and others for girls. The San Michael is supported by the government, and furnishes instruction, not only in the elementary studies, but in various trades, to over 400 orphans of both sexes. In this class of institutions there are about 2,000 boys and girls.

2. Parish schools for poor children—established by the rector of the parish, assisted by the commission of charitable subsidies. There were in 1847, eleven of these schools, with about 1,000 scholars, between the ages of five and twelve years.

3. Schools conducted by religious orders, devoted by their vows to teaching.

i. Schools conducted by a religious order established by Calasanzio, a native of Spain, who opened a free school in Rome, in 1597, which at one time numbered over 1,000 poor children in one of the poorest districts of the city. He died at the advanced age of ninety-two years, after his "Congregation to the Poor" had been erected into a religious order, by the pope, the members taking, in addition to the vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, the vow of instruction. The members are called Padri Scolapi, and the schools Scolapi, (contracted from *schole pie*,) or pious schools, of which there are now three, with over 1,000 pupils.

ii. Schools of the Fathers of the Christian Doctrine or teaching. This religious congregation, devoted to teaching, is composed of a fraternity established by Cesare de Bees in 1592, (Congregazione degli Agalisti,) and another founded by two priests in 1559. They have two houses, and educate about 700 pupils.

iii. Schools of the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine, a fraternity connected with the order of teachers established by De Lasalle in 1684, in France, and transferred to Rome in 1702. As they profess to teach only the elementary studies, they are sometimes called the Ignorantelli. They have three houses, and instruct about 1,200 children, without fee or reward.

In these schools, much time is given to religious instruction and ob-

servances, and the methods which were once in advance of other schools, are now antiquated and formal, to which these fraternities adhere with the tenacity of religious faith.

4. Elementary schools for the gratuitous instruction of poor girls. In one of these, the *conservatori*, sixty girls are boarded, lodged, and instructed; and as soon as they are of suitable age, are taught to spin, weave, make gloves, and other profitable handicrafts.

5. Regional or district schools. Rome is divided into wards, or districts, in which are maintained, partly at the expense of the government, and partly by a small charge on the parents, 246 district or regional schools, (scholae regionarie,) with about 5,000 children. These schools are of three grades—*first*, those which receive boys and girls under five years; *second*, those which receive only girls, in which they are taught, besides the elementary studies, to sew, knit, and embroider; *third*, those which receive only boys over five years. In a few of the two last grades of schools, the course of studies is extended so as to embrace the studies of our public high schools.

6. Schools established by individuals and associations—such as the school of Prince Massieno in one of the poorest districts of Rome—the evening schools established by Casaglio, an engraver in wood, in 1816, and extended by others.

These schools belong to the primary grade, and are intended mainly for the poorer classes.

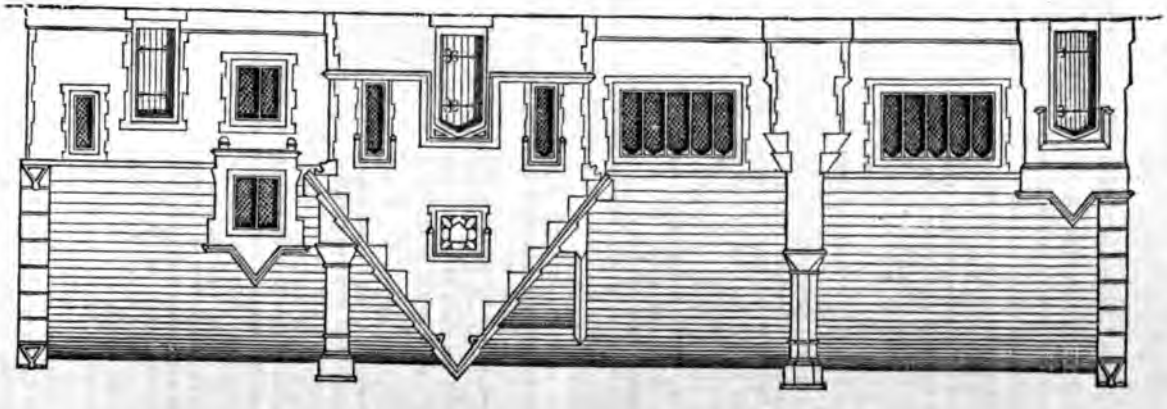
V. Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

A system of public instruction was established for this kingdom during its occupancy by the French, embracing the three grades of schools: 1. primary; 2. secondary; 3. superior.

1. The law requires at least one elementary school in every commune, for reading, writing, arithmetic, and the catechism. This provision is not very generally enforced. There are a number of primary schools taught by religious congregations, such as the Christian Brothers, and the Fathers Scolapi. In 1847, there were 2,500 primary schools.

2. Secondary instruction is supplied by 780 gymnasia, or classical schools, besides 4 lycea, which confer degrees. There is a large seminary for girls at Naples, and another at Palermo, besides a number of conventual seminaries for female education.

3. Superior education is dispensed by 4 universities:—at Naples, (founded in 1224;) at Catania, (founded in 1445;) at Palermo, (founded in 1447;) at Messina, (founded in 1838,) with an average attendance of about 2,300 pupils.



X. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

Model Primary School-House, in Boston.

The following description of the May Primary School-house, in Boston, taken from the Annual Report for 1864, was prepared by Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools: —

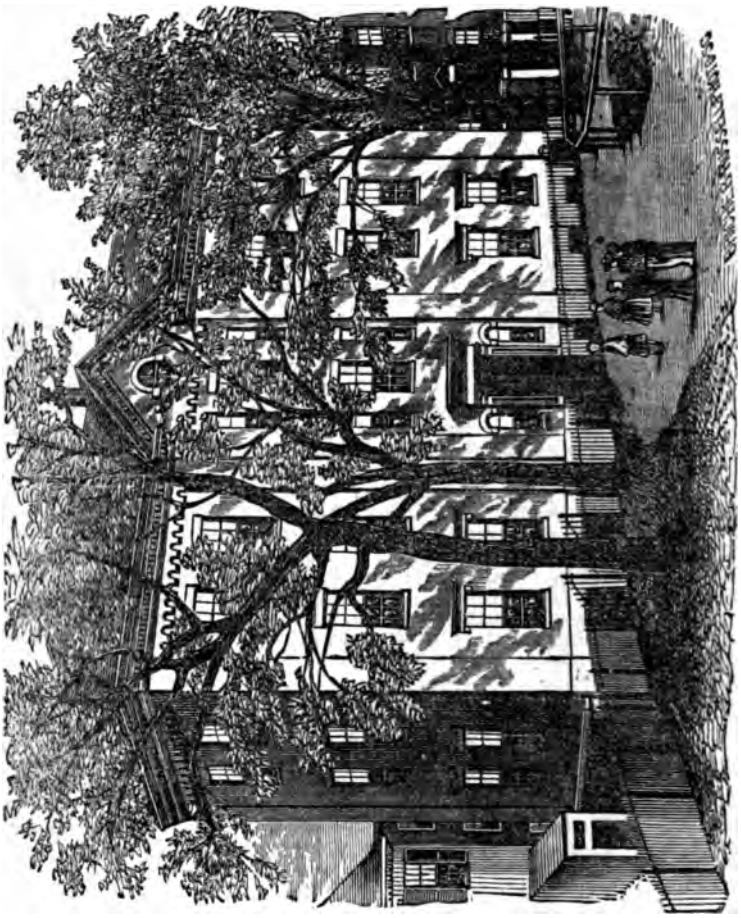
The accompanying cuts represent perspective views and plans of the two Primary School-houses which illustrate most strikingly our progress in this department of school architecture. Here are shown in contrast the first and poorest building ever erected in this city for the accommodation of a Primary School, and the latest and best. The former was built in 1831, thirteen years after the establishment of Primary Schools here, and when the whole number of schools of this grade was sixty, the registered number of pupils being 3,700. The whole cost of this edifice was $468. It is still occupied by a Primary School, but it will probably be vacated at the close of the present school year. It is located about a mile and a half west of the State House, on the Milldam road [a continuation of Beacon Street], a few rods beyond the corner of Parker Street. It is a wooden structure, perched up on piles four or five feet above the high-water mark of the tide millpond. It is about twenty-five feet square, and two stories high, the upper room having been occupied as a missionary chapel, by the Old South Society. It has recently been furnished with the modern school chairs and desks, but the original furniture was of the most primitive description, consisting simply of long forms without backs. There were no desks or benches for writing, and no boxes, or contrivances of any kind, for keeping the books. There was no need of any provision for the safe-keeping of slates, for in the early days of this building a slate in a Primary School was a rare phenomenon.

From this humble beginning, we have gradually advanced by successive steps of progress, which are fully illustrated by buildings now standing, till we have at length reached, as the result of the experiments of the past thirty years, that combination of improvements in school architecture which is exhibited in the new building already referred to, — a building which combines so many excellences as to deserve, perhaps, to be called a model Primary School-house. By far he most important improvements in our Primary School-houses have been made within the past ten years. Indeed it is only since 1860, that we have been working with a clear and definite purpose in the erection of buildings for our Primary Schools. Previous to this time there was no recognized ideal standard, or model plan, to which the buildings were made to conform as far as circumstances would permit, and each structure represented the idea of the Committee which happened to be in power at the time of its erection.

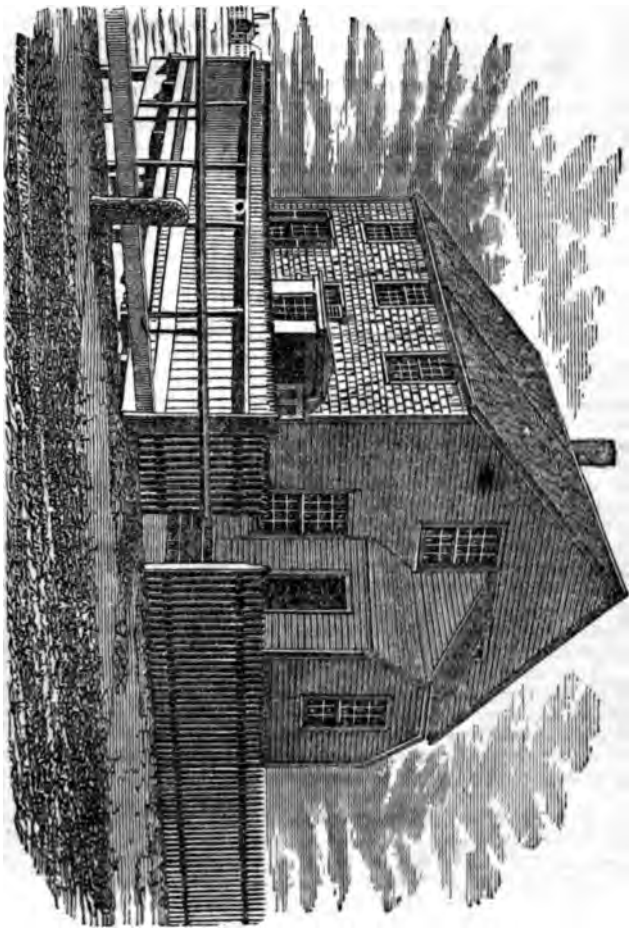
And, although such a standard has been kept constantly in view for four years past, owing to the difficulty of securing adequate lots, we have only now succeeded in coming fully up to its requirements, in the edifice which has recently been completed on Washington Square.

The plan which has at length been substantially carried out in this building, was the result of a movement inaugurated by the Committee on Public Instruction (of the City Council), under the intelligent lead of Thomas C. Amory, Jr., Esq., Chairman on the part of the Board of Aldermen, and J. Putnam Bradlee, Esq., President of the Common Council.

At the request of this Committee, early in the year 1860, the Superintendent of Schools, in conjunction with G. J. F. Bryant, Architect, prepared several model plans of Primary School-houses, with accom-



MAY PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE, WASHINGTON SQUARE, 1864.



PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE ON THE MILL-DAM ROAD, 1831.

panying mechanical and architectural descriptions, adapted to our peculiar organization of Primary Schools, and embodying the recent improvements in school architecture. In submitting his report on the subject to the above-named Committee, the Superintendent presented the following outline and plan of a model Primary School-room, adapted to our organization, to which the architect should endeavor to approximate as nearly as possible in designing Primary School Buildings:—

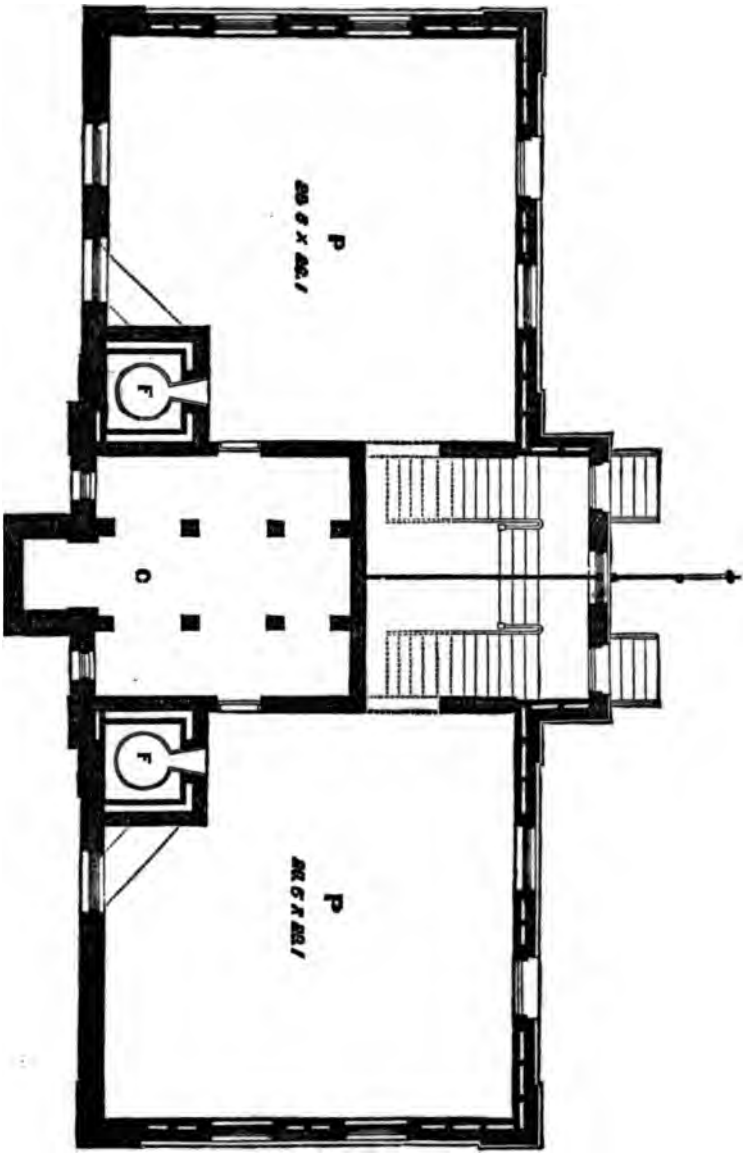
"Fifty-six being the number of pupils to be accommodated, the arrangement of the desks for this number is the next thing to be done. The best mode of disposing of them seems to be to make seven rows with eight in a row. Arranged in this way, they will occupy a space in the form of a rectangle, of which the longest side will be parallel with the teacher's platform. Each desk is one foot and a half long. The centre aisle should be two feet wide, and each of the others sixteen inches. A chair and desk together require a little more than two feet from front to back. Fifty-six desks and chairs, with the above dimensions and arrangements, would occupy a rectangle twenty-two feet by fifteen. In the rear, and on the sides of the space appropriated to seating, there should be a space not less than three feet wide. The teacher's platform should be at least five feet wide, and the area between the scholars' desks and the platform should be at least as wide. These measures will require a room twenty-eight feet square in the clear. The height should be twelve feet in the clear. This size gives one hundred and sixty eight cubic feet of air to each child, which would be sufficient to last thirty-nine minutes without a fresh supply. The plan entitled 'Model Primary School-room,' herewith submitted, represents the arrangements above described.

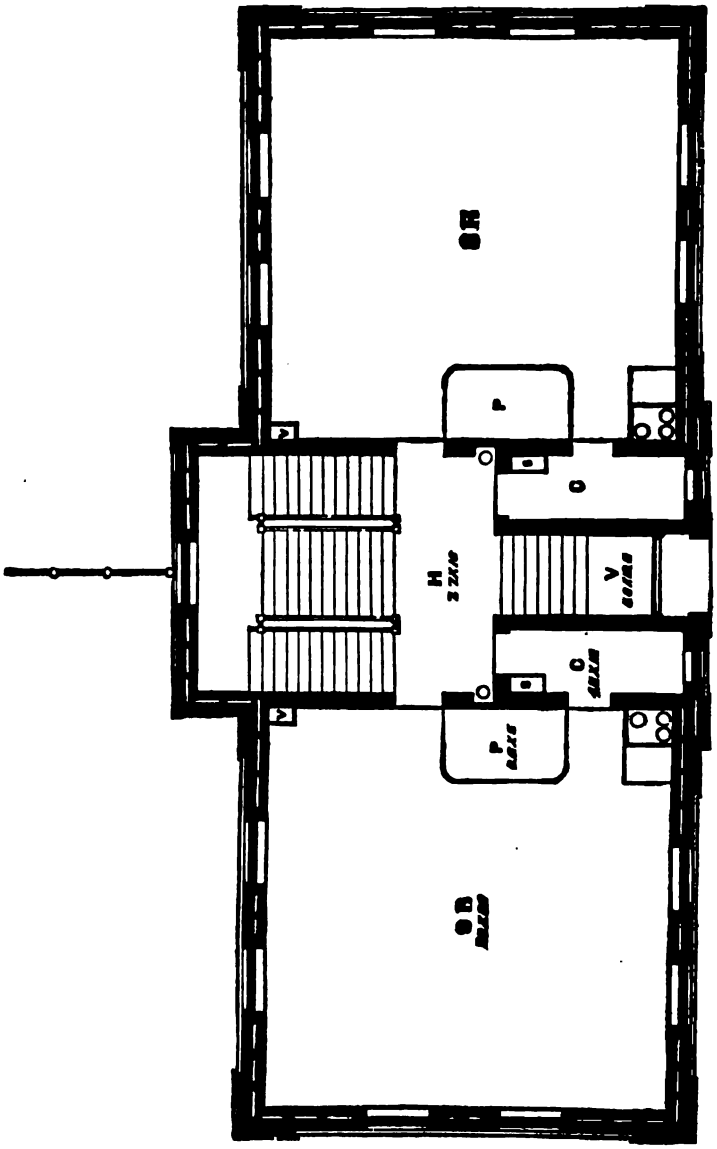
An inspection of this plan will show that provision is made for blackboards in the rear and in front of the pupils, and for light on both sides. When practicable, the light should be admitted on the left side of the pupils as they sit, in preference to the right side. If light can be admitted only on one side of the room, the pupils should be seated with their backs towards it. This room is planned on the supposition that architectural considerations will make it necessary to admit the light on two opposite sides of the room, rather than on two adjacent sides. If the light is admitted on opposite sides, as in this plan, the seating should be so arranged that the blank walls may be in front and rear, while the windows are on the right and left of the pupils as they sit.

Whatever may be the size of rooms in the building, each school-room should have attached to it a clothes closet. It is desirable that this closet should be accessible both from the entry and school-room. This closet should be from four to five feet in width, and about fifteen feet in length, and lighted by a window."

Such, in brief, was the origin of the general plan or system adopted by the City Council as a guide in the construction of Primary School-houses, and in accordance with which this building was designed by the accomplished architect, Nathaniel J. Bradlee, Esq.

"The new school-house on Washington Square is situated on a lot measuring 84 feet front, 55 feet 2⅝ inches on the west side, 126 feet 8½ inches on the rear, and 73 feet 3 inches on the east side, the building itself covering a space 77 feet 3 inches front by 31 feet 9 inches deep, with a projection in the rear 5 feet by 18 feet 6 inches, which is made so as to give sufficient depth for the stairway and clothes room. The façade is divided into three sections, the centre being 23 feet wide projecting 12 inches, and forming a regular pediment at the roof. There is a granite underpinning around the building averaging


P
P
F
F
O



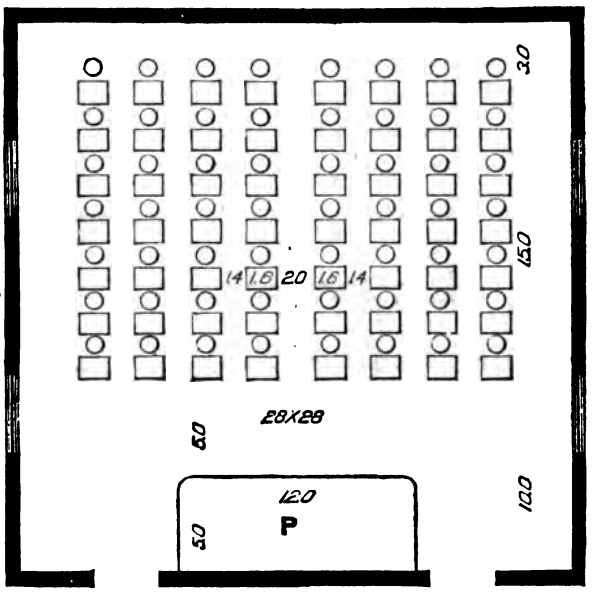
PRIMARY SCHOOL-HOUSE ON WASHINGTON SQUARE, FIRST FLOOR.

5 feet high in front, and 2 feet on the sides and rear; all above is of face brick with freestone trimmings, the whole being finished with a heavy cornice.

The first story windows have moulded freestone caps; all the others are plain.

The foundation stones, which are laid 3 feet 6 inches below the cellar bottom, are 1 foot 6 inches thick by 3 feet wide; on top of these the walls are carried up 20 inches thick in cement to the top of the floor, and above first floor the walls are vaulted with an air space of two inches, the outside wall being 12 inches thick and the inside one 4 inches thick.

The inside partition walls are also of brick, and the plastering is put directly on the brickwork, so as to prevent any danger of fire communicating from one story to another. The basement is divided into two play-rooms, each 28 feet 1 inch by 28 feet 5 inches, hall 15 feet by 16 feet 6 inches, fuel cellar 16 feet 6 inches by 17 feet, and two furnaces 8 feet square each. The first, second, and third stories, respectively, are divided into two school-rooms each 28 feet square; two clothes rooms, each 4 feet 6 inches by 12 feet, hall 16 feet by 20 feet 6 inches, including a landing 7 feet 7 inches by 16 feet; also a vestibule 5 feet 6 inches by 10 feet.



MODEL PRIMARY SCHOOL-ROOM, IN BOSTON.

Each clothes closet is supplied with water over an iron enamelled sink.

All the school-rooms, entries, and closets are sheathed 5 feet high, so as to protect the plastering."

In the second and third stories, the apartments corresponding to the vestibule [V] as represented in the cut of the first floor, are designed for teachers' dressing-rooms.

The furniture for pupils and teachers is of the best description, and was manufactured at the well-known establishment of Joseph L. Ross, Esq., in this city. The style is exhibited in the accompanying cuts.

UNION PORTABLE PRIMARY SCHOOL SINGLE DESK AND CHAIR.

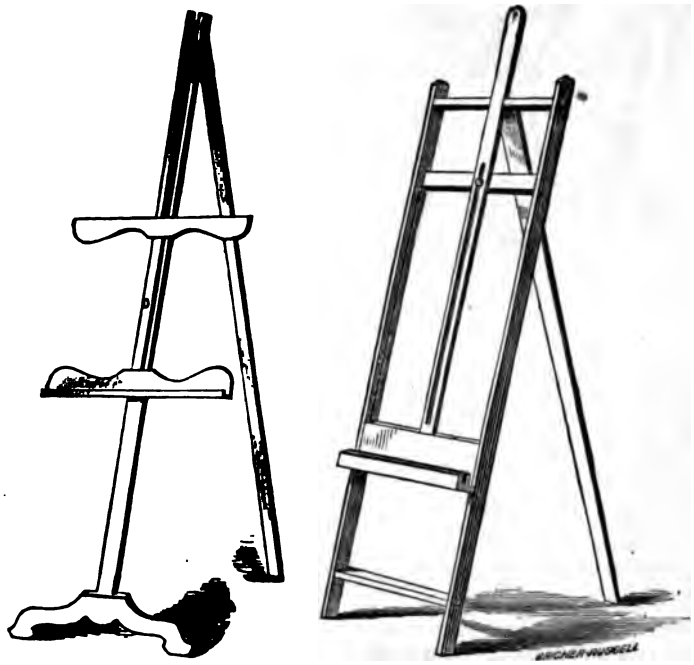
This style of Desk and Chair, with the Iron Slate Racks attached, for the Slates, is adopted and in universal use in the Boston Primary Schools. The Slates and Racks furnished with the Desks when desired.

They are graded of three different heights, Nos. 5, 6, and 7.

No. 5.	Desk and Chair, for pupils from 6 to 8 years of age.			
" 6.	do.	do.	5 to 6	do.
" 7.	do.	do.	4 to 5	do.

Length of desk, 1 foot 6 inches.
Width of No. 5 desk, 11 inches.
do. " 6 do. 10 "
do. " 7 do. 9 "
Space required for chair, between desks, 14 inches.

ROSS'S IMPROVED TEACHER'S DESK.



ROSS'S IMPROVED ADJUSTABLE STAND,

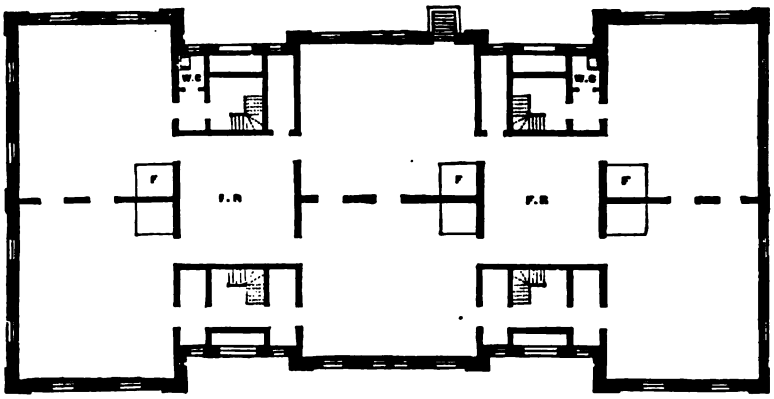
Which will be found very convenient for the exhibition of Philbrick's Boston Primary School Tablets, or small Black-boards, in the School-room. This movable stand enables the Teacher to place the Tablet where it can be seen to the best advantage by the class. The ledges on which the Tablet rests may be raised or lowered at pleasure.

The above stand is introduced and in extensive use in the Boston Primary Schools.

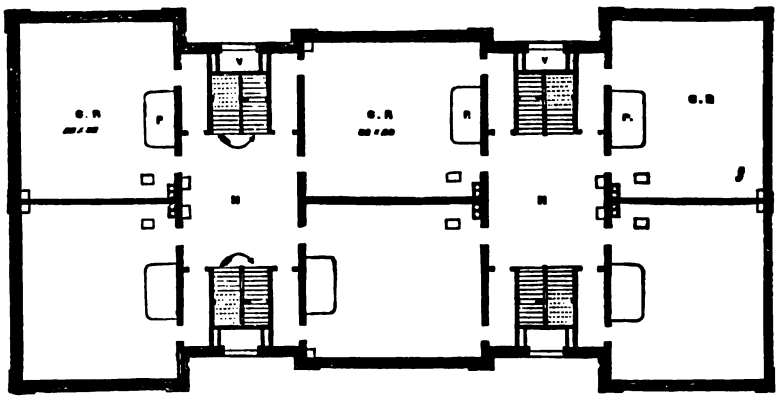
Plans of Prescott Grammar School-house, Boston.

The following description of the Prescott Grammar School-house, prepared by Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools, is taken from the Annual Report of the School Committee for 1865:—

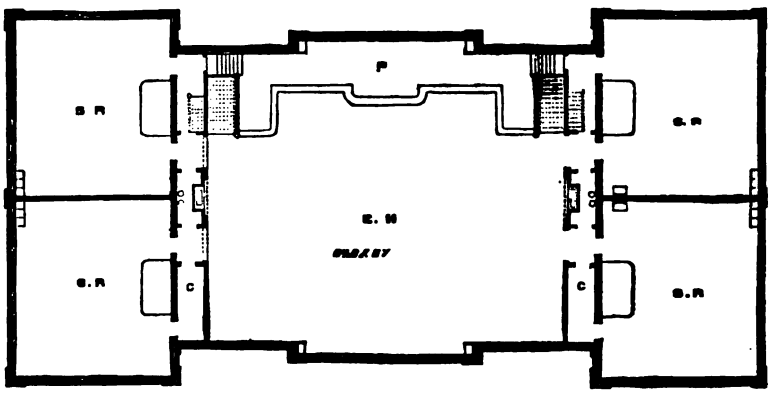
This noble edifice, which is well represented in the accompanying perspective view, is located in the easterly part of East Boston, about two miles from the City Hall. It stands near the centre of a lot which is just two hundred feet square, and is bounded on three sides by wide streets. It has a frontage of one hundred and thirty-eight feet on Prescott Street, and sixty-eight feet on Bennington and Saratoga Streets, respectively. It is three stories high, exclusive of the basement and attic. From an inspection of the accompanying cuts it will be seen that the ground plan of the building consists of five parts, namely, a central portion thirty-five feet by sixty, two wings, each thirty-one feet by sixty-eight; and two entrance halls, connecting the wings with the central portion, each twenty-one feet by fifty-six. There are four entrances, one in the front and one in the rear of each entrance hall, the two principal or front entrances being on Prescott Street. In each of the entrance halls there are two well-lighted staircases, leading from the first to the second story, and one leading from the second to the third story. The building contains *sixteen* school-rooms, of the same size, namely, twenty-eight feet by thirty-two. Six of these rooms are on the first floor, six on the second, and four on the third. It will be seen, on examining the plans, that each of the twelve rooms which are in the wings has a spacious and well-lighted clothes-closet attached, and that each of the four rooms in the central portion has two such closets. Each of these closets communicates both with its adjacent school-room and entrance hall, and serves as a passage-way for the pupils in going in and out of their rooms These closets are only half a story in height, there being above each an apartment of the same size and height, which is entered from a middle landing of a staircase. The latter are designed for dressing-rooms and water-closets for teachers, receptacles for books, school apparatus, etc. The school-rooms of the first and second stories are twelve and a half feet high in the clear; and those of the third story fourteen feet. The whole of the third story of the central portion, with a part of the space over each entrance hall, is devoted to an assembly and exhibition hall, which is sixty-five feet long, fifty-seven feet wide, and eighteen feet high. This is the largest and best hall for school purposes in the city. Its symmetrical and convenient arrangement is shown in plan No. 3. The basement, which is well paved with bricks, is ten feet high, and its extensive area, with the exception of the space occupied by the heating apparatus, is available as play-rooms for the pupils in stormy weather. The floors of the entrance halls are rendered fire-proof by means of iron beams supporting brick arches, on which are laid North River flagging stones. The other floors are laid with scantlings 1¾ by 1¾ inches, blind-nailed, forming a solid and smooth surface, — such as is needed for receiving the screws which secure the seats and desks, — without any wide cracks at the joints. All the windows are fitted with inside folding blinds, and those on the northerly and westerly sides have double sashes. The halls in each story are furnished with sinks, which are supplied with water from the Cochituate pipes. All the rooms are brought into communication with the master's room by means of speaking tubes and bells. Each of the school-rooms is furnished with fifty-six single desks and chairs of the most approved



Plan No. 1. Basement.



Plan No. 2. First and Second Floors.



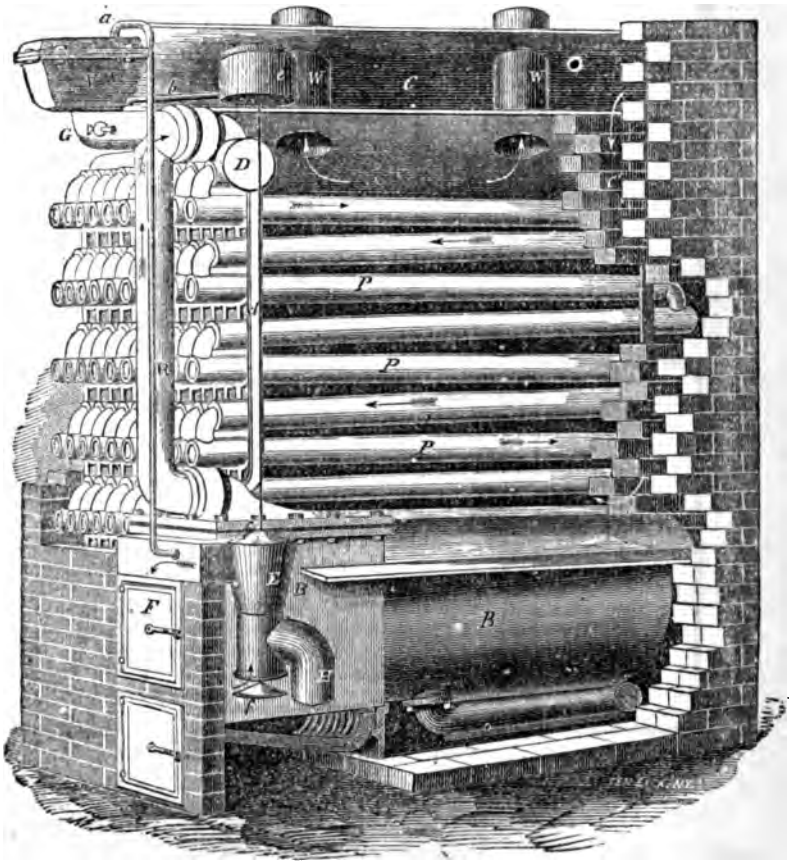
Plan No. 3. Third Floor.

PLAN No. 2.—	S. R.	School-room.	PLAN No. 3.—	S. R.	School-room.
	P.	Teacher's Platform.		E. H.	Assembly Hall.
	H.	Corridor.		P.	Platform.
	V.	Vestibule.		C.	Clothes Closet.

patterns. All the school furniture proper for teachers and pupils was manufactured at the establishment of J. L. Ross, of the best materials, and in the most workmanlike manner. The teachers' chairs and the settees for the large hall were furnished by John C. Hubbard, whose work in this line is always of the very first quality.

The method of ventilation does not differ essentially from that which has been applied to the other Grammar School-houses, excepting the Bowditch School-house. A ventiduct 16 × 16 inches in the clear, constructed of smoothly planed matched boards, is carried up from the floor of each room to the attic. Here these ventiducts are united in three groups, each group being carried up through the roof in a single shaft, which is surmounted by a 42-inch Leed's cap. Each ventiduct has two openings, which are fitted with valves, one being near the ceiling of the room from which it leads, and the other near the floor.

The building is heated by Brown's self-regulating, hot-water furnaces, which were furnished and set up by Geo. W. Walker & Co. The following description and cut, taken from the manufacturer's circular, present the essential features of this apparatus for heating. In this building there are three boilers, and to secure an equal distribution of the heating power, there is an independent stack of hot-water pipes in a separate air-chamber for each school-room.



"This hot-water apparatus consists of a horizontal boiler (*B*) which encloses the fire, insuring perfect safety, and precluding all possibility of any portion of the fire surface being heated above the boiling point. Over the boiler, and forming a continuation of it, is a stack of cast-iron pipes (*P*), arranged in horizontal convolutions, and filled, like the boiler, with water. A constant circulation of hot water is kept up through every portion of the radiating pipe, so long as the fire in the boiler is maintained.

A solid foundation of brickwork being prepared, the boiler (*B*) is set therein, the fire (*F*) being lit in the front of it, and the fire-box is made of the boiler itself, so that all the available heat produced by the combustion of the fuel is absorbed by the water. The entire apparatus being filled and the fire made, the water gradually ascends through the rising pipe (*R*) to the distributing pipe (*D*), and displaces the water in the pipes, causing it to pass into the boiler through the return pipe, (seen at bottom of boiler,) thus a continuous circulation of hot water is secured. The arrows in the cut indicate the direction of the currents.

The boiling of the water in the apparatus actuates the draft regulator. When the furnace is full of water, the bottom of a portion of the box (*V*) is covered with water to the depth of an inch, the box (*V*) is divided up to about four-fifths of its height, and a siphon connects the two compartments.

When ebullition commences, the water is thrown over the top of the partition and passes through the pipe (*b*) into the box (*e*), that contains a float which, as it rises, closes the lower valve (*f*), (which through pipe *H*, supplies the draft to the fire,) and elevates the upper valve (*f*), in order to admit the cold air on the top of the fire and thus check the boiling. The water having ceased to boil, returns from box (*e*) to box (*V*) through the siphon. The consequent descent of the float and valves allows the draft to pass under the fire until ebullition again takes place.

Danger from fire is entirely out of the question, and as the fire is surrounded by cast iron, lined (so to speak) with water, and as the tendency of fluids, when heated, is upward, and to descend when cooled, that portion of the boiler exposed to the fire is always the coolest part of the apparatus. The stack of pipe is enclosed on either side by two walls; and the exterior air, after passing by a conduit (*C*) constructed for the purpose, into the space between them, and being warmed by contact with the pipes, rises through the conductors (*W*) and the registers into the rooms it is designed to warm. Nothing can be more wholesome, pure and refreshing than the atmosphere thus evolved. No pernicious gases are present. No offensive odor is perceptible in the air warmed in this manner."

As an aid to proper ventilation (a subject of vital importance), this invention seems to have some important advantages. The fact that the radiating surface is at so low a temperature (below 212°), shows that a very great volume of air is required to warm an apartment sufficiently, which, when provided with means of egress, will most thoroughly ventilate by forcing out the impure atmosphere through the flues provided for the purpose.

The style of architecture resembles the Italian, with bracketed cornice, and pilasters at the intersections of the exterior and partition walls. All the walls, including the partitions, are constructed of bricks. The exterior walls are faced with pressed bricks, and buil. with a four-inch air space between the outer and inner surfaces The basement, string course, and door and window dressing are to fine hammered Rockport granite. The cornice is of wood. The roof is covered with Welsh slate, and fitted with copper gutters. The interior standing wood-work is grained in a very tasteful style.

The yard is enclosed on the three sides which are bounded by streets, by a substantial and handsome iron fence, and on the back

side by the water-closets and a brick wall. The rear portion of the yard, which is used as a play-ground, is paved with bricks; the front part is to be ornamented with trees, shrubs and flowers.

The contractors who furnished the heating apparatus and the furniture have already been named, and it is but just to record here the names of other parties who have, in various ways, contributed by their skill and taste to the construction of this great and well-built school-house. The excellence of the painting and graining is due to James Ransom; of the mason work, to Sayward and Lothrop; of the carpenter work, to Isaac C. Trowbridge; and of the slating, to C. S. Parker and Sons. Its architectural merit is due to George S. Ropes, Jr., the able architect. The adoption of the design was secured mainly through the influence of Judge Wright, of the Committee. Mr. James C. Tucker, Superintendent of Public Buildings, had the immediate supervision of its erection, — a duty which he performed with great fidelity and good judgment. Special credit belongs to the Sub-Committee of the City Council, consisting of Alderman Davies and Councilmen C. R. McLean and N. M. Morrison, who had the entire responsibility of the execution of the work in their hands, and who spared no pains to render it satisfactory and complete in all its parts, "from turret to foundation stone."

The cost of the lot was about $8,000, and the whole cost of the building and lot, including the iron fence, the furniture and heating apparatus, was $109,585.76.

Thus has been designed and erected the largest and most costly school edifice in Boston, and perhaps in the whole country. Two of the objections to the plan of the Grammar School-houses which we have built in the course of the last year, namely, the too great height of four stories, and the imperfections of the exhibition halls, have been obviated in the plan of the Prescott School-house. To accomplish this, a larger size was adopted. Whether the future Grammar School buildings shall be constructed on this model, in respect to size, is a question for the School Board to decide.

We subjoin from Mr. Philbrick's Twelfth Semi-Annual Report as Superintendent of Public Schools, for March 1866, the following remarks on the *proper size* of Grammar Schools in Boston. —

After much study and many efforts, we seem to have settled some important points in building school-houses, such as the mode of seating, the providing of a separate school-room for each teacher, and the proper model of such rooms as to size, arrangements, and the essentials of the clothes-rooms connected with the school-rooms. In these particulars our more recent school-houses are as good as could be desired. In a pamphlet by G. P. Randall, an accomplished architect in Chicago, containing plans in perspective of several noble school-houses which have recently been erected in the Northwestern States, — a document well calculated to open our eyes to the extraordinary educational enterprise of that section of the country, — I find the following statement respecting the arrangements of school-rooms.

"It is now pretty generally admitted by practical educators that a single room, large enough to seat from fifty to sixty-five scholars, and exclusively under the supervision and instruction of a single teacher, is better than a larger room, with recitation rooms and assistant teachers. I make designs for them both ways, but probably not more than one in fifteen with the large room and recitation rooms attached. As I am generally *instructed* in this matter, it follows that teachers are almost unanimous in the opinion that the single room system is the best; and it is the system adopted by the School Board of Chicago in the public schools of this city."

The origin of this system may be easily traced to the Quincy Grammar school-house, in this city, erected in 1847–48, the plans and description of which were published in Barnard's School Architecture. Another feature of this edifice as it then was, has not been so generally imitated, but which, I trust, will ultimately come to be considered an indispensable element in every Grammar School-house, namely, — *a hall large enough to seat comfortably all the pupils accommodated in the several school-rooms.* This is the case already in the city of New York.

But in respect to the important elements of heating and warming, we are still unsettled. Within the past twenty years there have been three radical changes made in the mode of heating our Primary school-houses. First, the old-fashioned coal stove gave place to Clark's ventilating stove. Subsequently this stove gradually went out of use, and in its place the ordinary cylinder coal stove was substituted. Lastly, this stove has been removed and hot-air furnaces introduced. The High School buildings are heated with hot-air furnaces; and nineteen of the Grammar School buildings are heated in the same way, while two are furnished with different systems of steam-heating apparatus. For ventilation, most of the buildings have Emerson's caps, with a separate ventiduct for each room, furnished with two registers, one near the ceiling and one near the floor. Robinson's system has been applied to one Grammar and one Primary building, the Normal Hall is furnished with the Archimedean system, and the Prescott School with Leed's caps. To furnish school-rooms in large and high buildings with an abundant supply of pure air of the requisite temperature and humidity, for health and comfort, is a difficult problem. Considerable progress has been made, no doubt, towards its solution, and it is hoped that the Committee on Public Buildings will continue to experiment upon it, guided by the principles of science and the light of experience, until satisfactory results are reached.

The question as to the maximum number of stories in height to which a school-house should be carried has caused some discussion amongst us. Nearly all the Grammar school-houses are at least four stories high. Several are practically five stories in height, as they have their play-ground on a level with the basement. There can be but one argument thought of in favor of carrying school-buildings up to this great height, and that is the argument of economy. As sky costs nothing, the expense of a building four stories high is less than one of the same capacity which is two or three stories high. But a school-house is never truly economical unless *it meets the requirements of health, convenience and safety.* In all these respects the four-story plan is decidedly objectionable, and I earnestly hope that it will be wholly and forever repudiated. In Baltimore a large and fine building has been erected for a Girls' High School. This edifice is only *two stories* high. There is in the same city another building three stories high occupied by a school of the same description. This school-house is considered too high, and it is proposed to build one to take its place which shall be only two stories high. In this particular the educational policy of Baltimore is certainly wiser than that of our own city, and more truly economical. Our new Primary school-houses are, with a single exception, three stories high, and it is to be hoped that no one will ever seriously think of carrying one to a greater height.

I have said that we seem to have arrived at a definite idea of what a school-room should be in respect to size, arrangements, proportion and seating. This is an important step gained. *But what should be the standard number of rooms for a building?* This is a question which has very important bearings on the interests of our schools, and it deserves the most serious consideration of the Board. In what I have to say on this topic, I do not propose to refer to High School

buildings, which constitute a class by themselves. By referring to the list of our school-houses, it will be seen that fourteen school-rooms is the number contained in each of the more recent buildings, excepting that of the Prescott School, which has sixteen. The former number of rooms will accommodate about 800 pupils and the latter 900. It thus appears that the Prescott school-house, the latest on the list, is designed to accommodate a hundred more pupils than could be seated in any one of the very large buildings which had been previously erected. Now, in view of our system of classification, the course of study required, the way in which pupils are promoted, the management in respect to graduation, and the distribution of the work of instruction to teachers of different sexes and grades, — considering these circumstances, and looking back upon the operation of the schools twenty years ago, when the number of pupils to a master averaged about one-third as high as it now does, to my mind it is clear that *the tendency to increase the size of our schools is a bad tendency.* Other things being equal, I should much prefer to send a child to one of our schools of the smallest size rather than to one of the largest. It is true, in general, that a large school may be more efficient and economical than a small one. But there must be a limit somewhere. It is certain that a school may be too large as well as too small. In some cities the schools are too small, in others they are too large. There are two objections to small schools; first, the expense of salaries sufficient to secure first-rate principals, — and without such principals you can never have superior schools; and, second, they cannot be perfectly classified, and so the teaching power cannot be applied to the best advantage. On the other hand, as you increase the size of a school, *conducted on our present plan*, you diminish the chances which a pupil has to get through the school and graduate at a suitable age. I do not say that our schools *might not be organized and conducted* in such a manner as to obviate this objection, but the accomplishment of this object in the face of the opposition which it would inevitably encounter, is a consummation rather to be desired than expected. Instead, therefore, of attempting to change the organization so as to adapt it to the largest sized building, it seems to me wiser and more practicable to adapt the size of the buildings hereafter erected to the organization as it now exists.

But besides the radical objections to the size of the largest buildings already stated, there are others of grave importance. One of these is its tendency to keep large and numerous "school colonies," so called, in poor and unfit accommodations. Ever since the large schools have been in fashion, we have had almost continually large colonies, or branches of one or more Grammar Schools, stowed away in rented rooms, where the pupils suffer many inconveniences and disadvantages. The Chapman School had colonies scattered about in different buildings for eight or ten years, before it was relieved by the erection of the Prescott house. There are still at this very time eight of our Grammar Schools with colonies of this description attached, comprising twenty-five divisions, with pupils enough to make three good-sized Grammar Schools. The cause of this state of things is plain enough. It is found in the policy of building very large school-houses. For it is obvious, that in order to justify the great expense of erecting one of these colossal edifices, there must be a large surplus of pupils in a given locality. To furnish these colonies with better accommodations, it has been proposed, in two or three cases, to erect buildings for their special use, thus making them permanent branch-schools — a remedy worse than the disease, and tending only to aggravate and perpetuate all the evils of overgrown schools. The true and effectual remedy for this great evil of keeping in operation so many colonies outside the regular school organization, is to be found in the policy of limiting the size of our buildings to reasonable dimensions.

There is another serious evil connected with this system which has been too little regarded. It is the necessity which it involves of bringing together, to make up the schools, the most diverse and heterogeneous materials. I know this is an extremely delicate subject to touch upon, but I am satisfied that it ought to be considered, and therefore I shall venture to throw out some suggestions upon it, and take the risk of having both my motives and my judgment condemned. My sympathies naturally lean very strongly to the indigent classes who are struggling to better their condition. But I remember that the image of Justice is pictured to us with bandaged eyes, to symbolize her impartiality. The just rights of all classes should be equally regarded; and while we are anxious to provide every needed facility for the education of the children of the poor, I think we ought not to ignore the educational wants of the wealthy portion of the community, who pay taxes so largely and liberally for the support of our schools. I think that Beacon Hill* should be just as well provided for as Fort Hill.† But if you build a school-house large enough to accommodate both localities, and require the parents to send their children to that one school or none, it is obvious that both sections are not equally provided for. But this supposed extreme case illustrates the kind of injustice we are doing, to a greater or less extent, all over the city, by the large-school system. I often point with satisfaction and pride, as an evidence of the success of our system of common schools, to the fact that boys from the wealthier families, and the sons of the highest officials, are found in the same schools with the child of the African race, and the poor newsboy. But I see plainly that there are necessary limitations, even in our intensely democratic community, in the practical application of this idea of bringing together the representatives of the extremes of society in the same school-rooms. The children of the poor must go to such schools as are provided for them, or not go at all; but if the schools provided do not suit the taste of the wealthy parent, he can and will withdraw his children and put them under private tuition. You may say, let him do it, then. That is not my way of disposing of the matter. I hold to the great principle that public schools should not only be free to all, but that they should be made good enough for all, so that, as far as practicable, the children of all classes may attend them. To this end the schools must be *adapted to the wants of all.* I am well aware that this cannot be done in this country by copying the British system of caste schools, which is based on the idea that the laboring classes, the middling classes and the aristocracy, must each be educated in separate and distinct classes of educational institutions. I only mean to maintain, and this I do maintain firmly, that the wealthy citizen in Boston ought not to be virtually deprived of the advantages of the Public School, which he would enjoy *incidentally*, if the school-houses were only kept within the limits as to size which a proper regard to efficiency and true economy demands.

. . . . . .

Having now presented some of the objections to the policy of building very large edifices for Grammar Schools, I am prepared to give my answer to the practical question, What should be considered the standard size for a Grammar school-house? I proceed on the assumption that there is a natural limit to the size of such a school for the purposes of economy and efficiency. And in view of the vast and varied interests involved in the management of public education, it is highly important to understand what that limit is, and to make our school architecture conform to it. This principle is aptly illustrated in navigation. The size of the vessel must be adapted to the business, or profits do not accrue. What would be thought of the business

* The residence of the wealthiest inhabitants.
† The residence of the poorest foreigners.

sagacity of the ship owner who should send his coasting schooner to India, and put his Indiaman to the coasting service? What steam is in navigation, classification or grading is in school economy. But the application of steam to navigation has its natural limitations, as the experiment of the Great Eastern has proved. And so has classification its proper limits, as has already been shown in some overgrown graded schools which seem to have been modelled on the pattern of the mammoth steamship. To determine the proper size of a Grammar School, it is only necessary to ascertain how many pupils are required to secure a good classification, and then adapt the size of the edifice to the accommodation of this number. To ascertain this number is a practical problem. It is easily solved by experience. Every intelligent educator understands it. All would not of course fix upon exactly the same number, but there would not be an essential difference of opinion among experts. The able superintendent of schools of New Haven thinks that both the Primary and Grammar grades combined in one organization in one building require only about 750 pupils for the purposes of a good classification; and he bases his recommendations respecting school architecture on this conclusion. This I should regard as the minimum number for the purpose, if I must take in pupils from five to sixteen years of age. But our system of Grammar Schools includes pupils from eight to sixteen years of age. Within this range, I consider 500 pupils about a fair average necessary for the purposes of a good classification, and a building large enough to accommodate this number is my standard for a Grammar School organized as ours are. I do not say that I would never build one larger or smaller; I should pay a proper regard to other considerations in every particular case to be provided for. But this would be my standard, all variations from it being considered as exceptions. Now, what sort of a building will answer this purpose? I answer, a building nearly resembling the Chapman school-house in proportions and capacity, being three stories high, *and having ten school-rooms, and a hall large enough to seat all the pupils* accommodated in the school-rooms. I do not name the Chapman as a building to copy in all details, nor yet in architectural taste, for it is by no means a model in respect to beauty; but I refer to it as containing the essential accommodations for a Boston Grammar School. We may take pride in showing strangers an enormous four-story school-house, as evidence of our liberal provisions for free schools, but we cannot afford to sacrifice our substantial educational interests for the sake of any such gratification. We do not want mere show schools: we want real educating schools.

Twenty years ago I strenuously advocated the policy of large schools, according to the extent of my limited influence. But at that time the question was not between schools of five hundred pupils and schools of a thousand, under one head, but between those of two or three hundred and those of five hundred. What was then deemed a large school is now reckoned (with us) a small school. Twenty years ago I ventured to predict that the increase of the size of our schools to five hundred or six hundred pupils under one master would elevate the position of the master and secure for him a higher salary,—a very important consideration in school economy. My anticipations have been more than realized. But this is only an incidental advantage of large schools, and it will not do to increase the size of schools without limit, merely to create responsible situations for principals. Besides, a Grammar School of five hundred, with the Primary Schools grouped around which should be placed under the same head, is as large as is desirable for the proper supervision of one principal.

I have thus protracted the discussion of this topic, because it seems to me a topic of vital importance, and if what I have said shall lead to a careful consideration of it by the School Board and the City Council, my object will be accomplished.

ROSS'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL DESK AND CHAIR, IN PRESCOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

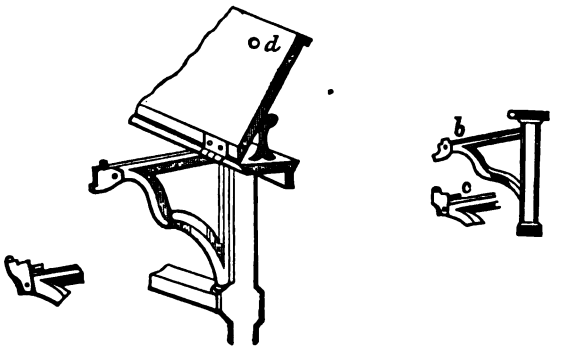
ROSS'S PRINCIPAL'S DESK FOR GRAMMAR SCHOOL, IN PRESCOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

As drawing is a regular study in our best conducted schools, suitable provision should be made, in the construction and arrangement of school furniture, for its convenient prosecution. If this branch is to be attended to at the desks usually occupied by the pupil, a light frame can be attached to the desk to support the model, or lesson copy, and a movable ledge provided, on which the upper part of the drawing board may rest.

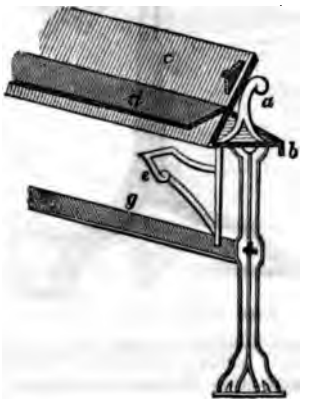
A Leaf and Drawing Desk.

A drawing desk may be made, in connection with a fall or leaf desk, after the following plan, from Richson's School Builder's Guide.

In the fall or leaf desk, the leaf is attached to the level, fixed portion *b*, by hinges, and when turned up leans on an iron rod, or support *a*, and when turned down rests on a bracket (Fig. 1.) The bracket moves on iron pins, let into the under side of the desk above, and the strengthening bar *g*, below. The end of the arm of the bracket is made with a swivel joint, composed of two projecting points or pins, at right angles to each other, both of which fit into a hole *d*, on the under side of the desk, to prevent any movement of the bracket. When one of these points *f*, (Fig. 2,) is up, the leaf resting upon it forms an inclined desk, and when the other point *h*, is turned up, an extra height is gained and the leaf forms a level table.



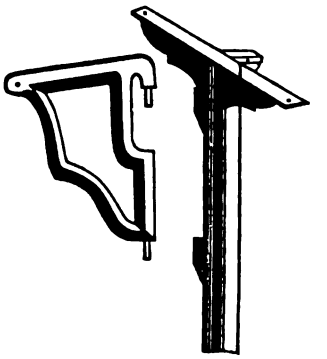
This form of study or writing desk is easily converted into a drawing desk, (Fig. 3,) by fitting to the under side *e*, of the leaf near the hinge, a wedge-



shaped ledge *d*, on which the upper end of the movable drawing board may rest, while the other end is placed on the pupils knees. The bracket *e*, is formed with a curve, in order to admit the ledge when the leaf is let down. The model or

copy can rest on the ledge and against the leaf *c*. The bracket can be turned in when the leaf is thus used.

The annexed cut, Fig. 4, exhibits another method of forming the bracket in a cast iron standard. The upper portion of the standard is, in this specimen, provided with stays, into which the wood work is attached by screws.



We give below the plan of a movable drawing desk, designed and manufactured by Joseph L. Ross, Boston.

Ross' Movable Drawing Desk.

The standard consists of a hollow iron pillar, with a neat tripod base, on which it rests firmly on the floor. In this pillar is inserted a shaft, controlled by a screw, to raise or lower the desk at the pleasure of the pupil. The desk or drawing table is attached to the top of the shaft by hinges, on which it can be turned, and, by means of a circle, which passes through the shaft, and a screw, fixed at any angle required. Attached to the under side of the table is a drawer to receive the implements, &c.

The following cuts represent a front view (Fig. 1,) and end section (Fig. 2,) of the desk, and a front view and section of a drawing board (Fig. 3,) recommended for the use of the drawing schools in connection with the Department of Practical Art in the Board of Trade, England.

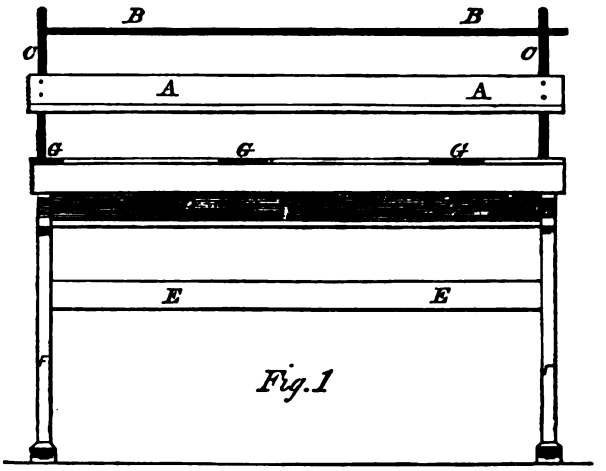
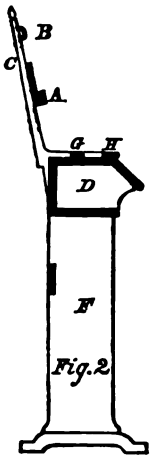


Fig. 1.—Front View of Drawing Desk.



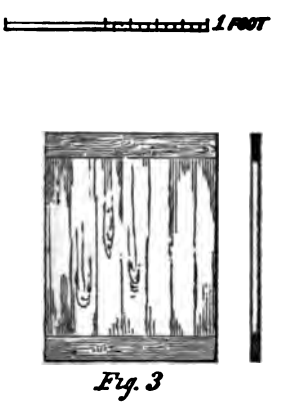


Fig. 2.—Section of Drawing Desk. Fig. 3.—Drawing Board.

A, A, Fig. 1, A, Fig. 2—A wooden rail, screwed to iron uprights C, C, to hold the examples or copy.

B, B, ⅝ inch rod, passing through eyes in ⅝ inch iron uprights, C, C, C, to support the examples.

C, C, C, ⅝ inch iron uprights, screwed to the desk at I, and punched at the upper end to receive the iron rod B.

D, D, hollow space to hold the students' pencils, knives, &c.

E, E, wooden rail to stiffen uprights, F, F, F, which are screwed to the floor

G, G, (Fig. 1,) short fillets, as shown at G, (Fig. 2,) placed opposite each student, to retain the board, or example more upright if necessary.

H, (Fig. 2,) a fillet running along the desk, to prevent pencils, &c., rolling off.

Shattuck's Improved School Furniture.

William G. Shattuck, No. 80 Commercial Street, and 149 and 153 Fulton Street, Boston, manufactures a variety of School Furniture, of which the following cuts represent specimens.

No. 1. Boston Primary School Chair.

No 2. Single and double desk for Grammar and District Schools, with an Improved Chair.

No. 3. Desk and Chairs for Teacher in variety of patterns.

Plans, &c., of an Octagonal School-house.

Furnished for the "School and School-master," by Messrs. Town and Davis.

Fig. 1.

This design for a school-house intends to exhibit a model of fitness and close economy. The principles of fitness are, 1. *Ample dimensions*, with very nearly *the least possible length of wall* for its inclosure, the roof being constructed without tie beams, the upper and lower ends of the rafters being held by the wall plates and frame at the foot of the lantern. The ceiling may show the timber-work of the roof, or it may be plastered. 2. *Light, a uniform temperature, and a free ventilation*, secured by a lantern light, thus avoiding lateral windows (except for air in summer,) and gaining wall-room for black-boards, maps, models, and illustrations. Side windows are shown in the view, and may be made an *addition* by those who doubt the efficiency of the lantern light. (The lantern is not only best for light, but it is essential for a free ventilation.) With such a light, admitted equally to all the desks, there will be no inconvenience from shadows. The attention of the scholars will not be distracted by occurrences or objects out of doors. There will be less expense for broken glass, as the sashes will be removed from ordinary accidents. The room, according to this plan, is heated by a fire in the center, either in a stove or grate, with a pipe going directly through the roof of the lantern, and finishing outside in a sheet-iron vase, or other appropriate cap. The pipe can be tastefully fashioned, with a hot-air chamber near the floor, so as to afford a large radiating surface before the heat is allowed to escape. This will secure a uniform temperature in every part of the room, at the same time that the inconvenience from a pipe passing directly over the heads of children, is avoided. The octagonal shape will admit of any number of seats and desks, (according to the size of the room,) arranged parallel with the sides, constructed as described in specification, or on such principles as may be preferred. The master's seat may be in the center of the room, and the seats be so constructed that the scholars may sit with their backs to the center, by which their attention will not be diverted by facing other scholars on the opposite side, and yet so that at times they may all face the master, and the whole school be formed into one class. The lobby next to the front door is made large, (8 by 20) so that it may serve for a recitation-room. This lobby

is to finish eight feet high, the inside wall to show like a screen, not rising to the roof, and the space above be open to the school-room, and used to put away or station school apparatus. This screen-like wall may be hung with hats and clothes, or the triangular space next the window may be inclosed for this purpose. The face of the octagon opposite to the porch, has a wood-house attached to it, serving as a sheltered way to a double privy beyond. This woodhouse is open on two sides, to admit of a cross draught of air, preventing the possibility of a nuisance. Other wing-rooms (A A) may be attached to the remaining sides of the octagon, if additional conveniences for closets, library, or recitation-rooms be desired.

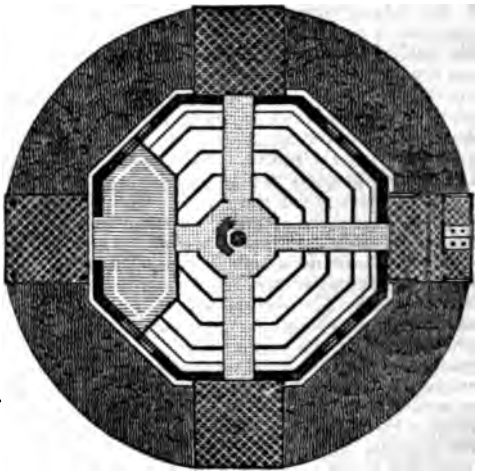


Fig. 2.

The mode here suggested, of a lantern in the center of the roof for lighting all common school-houses, is so great a change from common usage in our country, that it requires full and clear explanations for its execution, and plain and satisfactory reasons for its general adoption, and of its great excellence in preference to the common mode. They are as follows, viz.:

1. A skylight is well known to be far better and stronger than light from the sides of the building in cloudy weather, and in morning and evening. The difference is of the greatest importance. In short days (the most used for schools) it is still more so.

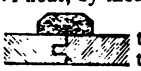
2. The light is far better for all kinds of study than side light, from its quiet uniformity and equal distribution.

3. For smaller houses, the lantern may be square, a simple form easily constructed. The sides, whether square or octagonal, should incline like the drawing, but not so much as to allow water condensed on its inside to drop off, but run down on the inside to the bottom, which should be so formed as to conduct it out by a small aperture at each bottom pane of glass.

4. The glass required to light a school-room equally well with side lights would be double what would be required here, and the lantern would be secure from common accidents, by which a great part of the glass is every year broken.

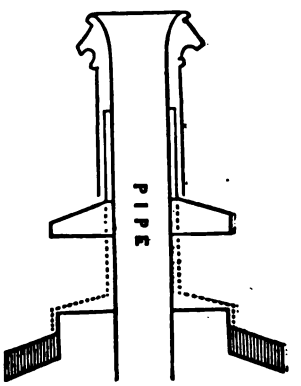
5. The strong propensity which scholars have to look out by a side window would be mostly prevented, as the shutters to side apertures would only be opened when the warm weather would require it for air, but never in cool weather, and therefore no glass would be used. The shutters being made very tight, by calking, in winter, would make the school-room much warmer than has been common; and, being so well ventilated, and so high in the center, it would be more healthy.

6. The stove, furnace, or open grate, being in the center of the room, has great advantages, from diffusing the heat to all parts, and equally to all the scholars; it also admits the pipe to go perpendicularly up, without any inconvenience, and it greatly facilitates the ventilation, and the retention or escape of heat, by means of the sliding cap above.



Construction.—Foundation of hard stone, laid with mortar; the superstructure framed and covered with 1¼ plank, tongued, grooved, and put on vertically, with a fillet, chamfered

at the edges, over the joint, as here shown. In our view, a rustic character is given to the design by covering the sides with slabs; the curved side out, tongued and grooved, without a fillet over the joint; or formed of logs placed vertically, and lathed and plastered on the inside. The sides diminish slightly upward. A rustic porch is also shown, the columns of cedar boles, with vines trained upon them. The door is battened, with braces upon the outside, curved as shown, with a strip around the edge. It is four feet wide, seven high, in two folds, one half to be used in inclement weather. The cornice projects two feet six inches, better to defend the boarding; and may show the ends of the rafters. Roof covered with tin, slate or shingles. Dripping eaves are intended, without gutters. The roof of an octagonal building of ordinary dimensions may with ease and perfect safety be constructed without tie beams or a garret floor (which is, in all cases of school-houses, waste room, very much increasing the exposure to fire, as well as the expense.) The wall-plates, in this case, become ties, and must be well secured, so as to form one connected *hoop*, capable of counteracting the pressure outward of the angular rafters. The sides of the roof will abut at top against a similar timber octagonal frame, immediately at the foot of the lantern cupola. This frame must be sufficient to resist the pressure inward of the roof (which is greater or less, as the roof is more or less inclined in its pitch,) in the same manner as the tie-plates must resist the pressure outward. This security is given in an easy and cheap manner; and may be given entirely by the roof boarding, if it is properly nailed to the angular rafters, and runs horizontally round the roof. By this kind of roof, great additional height is given to the room by *camp-ceiling;* that is, by planing the rafters and roof-boards, or by lathing and plastering on a thin half-inch board ceiling, immediately on the underside of the rafters, as may be most economically performed. This extra height in the center will admit of low side-walls, from seven to ten feet in the clear, according to the size and importance of the building, and, at the same time, by the most simple principle of philosophy, conduct the heated foul air up to the central aperture, which should be left open quite round the pipe of the stove, or open grate standing in the center of the room. This aperture and cap, with the ventilator, is shown by the figure adjoining, which is to a scale of half an inch to a foot. The ventilator is drawn raised, and the dotted lines show it let down upon the roof. It may be of any required size, say two feet wide and twelve inches high, sliding up and down between the stovepipe and an outward case, forming a cap to exclude water. This cap may be pushed up or let down by a rod affixed to the under edge, and lying against the smokepipe.



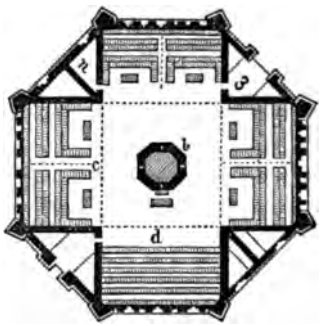
In the design given, the side-walls are ten feet high, and the lantern fifteen feet above the floor; eight feet in diameter, four feet high. The sashes may open for additional ventilation, if required, by turning on lateral pivots, regulated by cords attached to the edges above. The breadth of each desk is seventeen inches, with a shelf beneath for books, and an opening in the back to receive a slate. The highest desks are twenty-seven inches, inclined to thirty, and the front forms the back of the seat before it. The seat is ten to twelve inches wide, fifteen high, and each pupil is allowed a space of two feet, side to side.

For the sake of variety, we have given a design in the pointed style, revised from a sketch by ——, an amateur in architecture. Any rectangular plan will suit it; and the principles of light and ventilation dwelt upon in the description of the octagon design, may be adapted to this. The principal light

Fig. 3.

is from one large mullioned window in the rear end. The side openings are for air in summer—not glazed, but closed with tight shutters. The same ventilating cap is shown, and height is gained in the roof by framing with collar beams set up four or five feet above the eaves. The sides, if not of brick or stone, may be boarded vertically, as before described.

The following PLAN OF AN OCTAGONAL SCHOOL-HOUSE represents the *School of Practice annexed* to St. Mark's Training College, near London. In the cen-



ter (*b*) is the fire-place and ventilating apparatus. On the four sides of the brickwork, forming the ventilating apparatus and the chimneys, blackboards, maps, and musical tablets, are suspended, so as to be seen by the classes in the squares or recesses opposite. Each of the four recesses is 20 feet square, and accommodates about 60 pupils, divided into two classes separated by a curtain (*c*.) In one is a gallery (*d*) for an infant class.

XI. NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

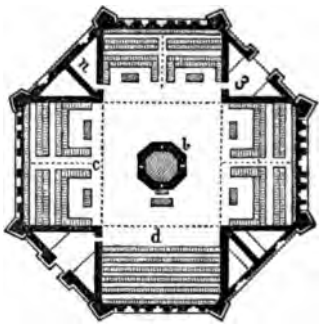
THE earliest educational convention in the State of New Jersey was held in Trenton, Nov. 11th, 1828. For some years previous, attention had been more and more drawn to the subject of popular education, and addresses had been delivered on various occasions, whose publication aided in arousing a general interest, as those by Dr. Samuel Miller, in Sept., 1825; by Hon. C. F. Mercer, in Sept., 1826, at the New Jersey College commencement; and by Prof. John Maclean, in January, 1828, before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New Jersey—which Society had been formed in the fall of 1825 "for the promotion of useful knowledge, and the friendly and profitable intercourse of the literary and scientific gentlemen of the State." The want of better schools and of a better organized system of public instruction had become felt, and the purpose to press upon the attention of the Legislature the necessity of immediate action led to the calling of this public meeting of the friends of education to consult upon the most judicious method of procedure. As a result, a committee was appointed consisting of Messrs. Charles Ewing, John N. Simpson, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, with central county committees, and sub-committees in the different townships, to report upon the number and condition of common schools, and to ascertain, as far as practicable, the number of children wholly destitute of instruction. Very full returns were made from all parts of the State, which were embodied in the report of the committee and published, revealing such a condition of things as could not fail to make an impression upon the Legislature. Numerous petitions and memorials upon the subject were presented to that body, and accordingly, in 1829, an act was passed "to establish common schools," which, however, proved so defective as to effect but little good and was repealed in 1831.

In April, 1834, a literary convention met at Princeton, which resulted in the formation of the "*New Jersey Lyceum*," having for its main object the improvement of the system of common school edu-

Fig. 3.

is from one large mullioned window in the rear end. The side openings are for air in summer—not glazed, but closed with tight shutters. The same ventilating cap is shown, and height is gained in the roof by framing with collar beams set up four or five feet above the eaves. The sides, if not of brick or stone, may be boarded vertically, as before described.

The following PLAN OF AN OCTAGONAL SCHOOL-HOUSE represents the *School of Practice annexed* to St. Mark's Training College, near London. In the cen-



ter (*b*) is the fire-place and ventilating apparatus. On the four sides of the brickwork, forming the ventilating apparatus and the chimneys, blackboards, maps, and musical tablets, are suspended, so as to be seen by the classes in the squares or recesses opposite. Each of the four recesses is 20 feet square, and accommodates about 60 pupils, divided into two classes separated by a curtain (*c*.) In one is a gallery (*d*) for an infant class.

XI. NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE earliest educational convention in the State of New Jersey was held in Trenton, Nov. 11th, 1828. For some years previous, attention had been more and more drawn to the subject of popular education, and addresses had been delivered on various occasions, whose publication aided in arousing a general interest, as those by Dr. Samuel Miller, in Sept., 1825; by Hon. C. F. Mercer, in Sept., 1826, at the New Jersey College commencement; and by Prof. John Maclean, in January, 1828, before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New Jersey—which Society had been formed in the fall of 1825 "for the promotion of useful knowledge, and the friendly and profitable intercourse of the literary and scientific gentlemen of the State." The want of better schools and of a better organized system of public instruction had become felt, and the purpose to press upon the attention of the Legislature the necessity of immediate action led to the calling of this public meeting of the friends of education to consult upon the most judicious method of procedure. As a result, a committee was appointed consisting of Messrs. Charles Ewing, John N. Simpson, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, with central county committees, and sub-committees in the different townships, to report upon the number and condition of common schools, and to ascertain, as far as practicable, the number of children wholly destitute of instruction. Very full returns were made from all parts of the State, which were embodied in the report of the committee and published, revealing such a condition of things as could not fail to make an impression upon the Legislature. Numerous petitions and memorials upon the subject were presented to that body, and accordingly, in 1829, an act was passed "to establish common schools," which, however, proved so defective as to effect but little good and was repealed in 1831.

In April, 1834, a literary convention met at Princeton, which resulted in the formation of the "*New Jersey Lyceum*," having for its main object the improvement of the system of common school edu-

cation. Rev. Dr. W. R. Weeks was elected President; E. C. Wines, Secretary; and Messrs. A. B. Dod, E. C. Wines, J. W. Alexander, John Lowry, and James Van Deventer, Executive Committee. The first annual meeting was held at Princeton, June 18th, 1834, but of the gentlemen appointed to prepare essays for the occasion none responded, excepting the President, who communicated an able paper on the "*Defects of the Common Schools and their Remedies.*" Numerous circulars had been issued soliciting information respecting the condition of the schools, but scarcely half a dozen replies had been received. The attempt was now again made by appointing corresponding committees throughout the State, and another issue of circulars called forth another half-dozen of replies. A special meeting of the Lyceum was held at Trenton, January 21st, 1835, during the session of the Legislature, and a report was made by the Executive Committee of their discouraging ill success and of the profound apathy that prevailed throughout the State. Resolutions respecting the prominent failings and wants of common school teachers were supported by able speeches from Messrs. Prof. Albert D. Dod, D. D., R. S. Field, and Hon. Charles Kinsey. Theodore Frelinghuysen was appointed President, in place of Dr. Weeks, resigned. An attempt was afterwards made by the Lyceum to publish a cheap edition of Cousin's Report on Public Instruction in Prussia for gratuitous distribution, but the committee failed to raise the necessary funds.

Nothing more seems to have been done by the State Lyceum, but at the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, held at Philadelphia in May, 1837, a debate arose upon the principles that should govern a State in applying its surplus revenue to the support of education, and on motion of the delegates of the Perth Amboy Philanthropic Association, the question was referred to the auxiliary societies for fuller discussion. This Association accordingly resumed the discussion, and five public meetings were held, in the course of which the subject was extended to include the condition and wants of the schools of the State, and a committee was appointed (Messrs. J. F. Halsey, of Raritan Seminary, and S. E. Woodbridge,) to embody the views of the Association in a written report. This was done in the form of a "Memorial to the Legislature on Public Instruction," which was published and circulated. The interest soon became general and a State Convention on education was called, which met at Trenton, January 16th, 1838, and continued in session two days, Chief Justice Hornblower presiding. Resolutions were passed recommending the establishment of the

office of State Superintendent of Schools, appointing a General Committee to prepare an address to the people, and County Committees to collect and diffuse information and awaken public interest. A stirring address was prepared by Rt. Rev. G. W. Doane, chairman of the General Committee, which was widely circulated, and other measures, including an annual convention of the friends of education in the State, were in contemplation, but probably not carried out. The Legislature of March, 1838, under the influence of these movements, made some changes in the school law, but not such as were most desired—increasing the annual appropriation and providing for the election of township committees, school trustees, and boards of examiners. The subject was repeatedly introduced at subsequent sessions, but nothing was effected until the passage of the Act of 1846, creating the office of State Superintendent.

In the meantime there had been formed the "*Society of Teachers and Friends of Education in New Jersey*," of which little information can be given. It was organized at New Brunswick, on the 2d of September, 1843, with the following officers:—Rev. James S. Cannon, D. D., *President*. Gov. William Pennington, Hon. W. L. Dayton, Hon. G. P. Molleson, R. S. Field, and John Terhune, *Vice-Presidents*. A. Ackerman and Benj. Mortimer, *Secretaries*. At a quarterly meeting held at New Brunswick, Dec. 2d, 1843, Hon. G. P. Molleson presiding, the prominent subject of discussion was the choice of a series of text-books for general use. A lecture was also delivered by Prof. J. H. Agnew, on the "*Moral Dignity of the Teacher's Office*." The "*Newark Education Society*" had been formed at about the same time. A "*Society for the Improvement of Common Schools*" is also mentioned as existing in 1845, by whom a report was published upon moral and religious instruction in schools. In 1847 the "*Essex County Teachers' Association*" was formed, probably the first in the State, which continued in operation four years.

The want of a Normal School for the training of teachers had been long recognized as one of the main defects of the existing school system, and as early as 1838 and 1839 had been strongly urged upon the attention of the Legislature by the Trustees of the School Fund. No organized and systematic effort, however, was attempted until 1847, during which year meetings were held in several counties and resolves were passed favoring the establishment of such an institution. The most important of these meetings was the Convention of the Friends of Education in Burlington county, held

in Mount Holly on the 18th of November, and again, by adjournment, on the 2d of December. Dr. John Griscom was appointed Chairman, and H. L. Southard, Secretary. A committee, consisting of Messrs. G. D. Wall, J. Griscom, Prof. E. C. Wines, P. V. Coppuck, and Rev. C. A. Kingsbury, made an able report (drawn up by E. C. Wines) covering the whole question of normal schools and accompanied by letters from distinguished men of other States, who had been addressed upon the subject. As a consequence of the action taken by this convention and similar less influential ones, several petitions and one or two counter remonstrances were presented to the Legislature of the following year, 1848, whose Committee on Education reported the draft of an Act for the establishment of a Normal School, which did not pass beyond a second reading. The public sentiment of the State was not yet ready for such action, but by the influence of local conventions, the reports of school officers, of the Superintendent, Hon. T. F. King, and of committees of the Legislature, such an improvement was effected in the few following years as to insure final success.

The first County *Teachers' Institute* in the State was held at Somerville, Somerset county, in November, 1851. It met annually thereafter, each year sending its petition to the Legislature for recognition. Early in 1853 a City Teachers' Association was formed at Newark, whose proceedings and resolves in reference to Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes were widely published. In October of the same year a State Convention was held at Trenton, of which Gov. G. F. Fort was Chairman, and Isaiah Peckham and W. H. Van Nortwick, Secretaries; and through its action, in the following December a convention of the teachers of the State met in New Brunswick and organized a *State Teachers' Association.* During the legislative session of 1854, a committee of three gentlemen, acting under a resolution of this Association, delivered addresses in the Assembly Chamber, before the members of both Houses, upon the subject of popular education. The proceedings of this meeting produced a deep impression upon the Legislature and one of its immediate results was the passage of a law establishing County Teachers' Institutes. Several of these Institutes were held the same year in connection with the meetings of the County Teachers' Associations which had already been organized. In the following year, nearly seventeen years of effort were rewarded with success in the establishment, by act of the Legislature, of the State Normal School—an act which, together with that establishing Teachers' Institutes, effected more for education in New Jersey than all that had previously been done.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION.

The call for the State Convention of Teachers at New Brunswick, on the 28th of Dec., 1853, was signed by Messrs. C. C. Hoagland, J. B. Thompson, and J. T. Clark, a committee of arrangements who had been appointed at the previous meeting in October, and an address to the teachers of the State, designed to enlist them in the proposed association, was simultaneously issued by another committee, consisting of David Cole, J. K. Burnham, and Isaiah Peckham. Nathan Hedges, of Newark, the oldest teacher in the State, presided, and J. T. Clark acted as Secretary, and the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized, of which R. L. Cook was elected President; Isaiah Peckham, Vice-President; and David Cole, Secretary. A committee, as already mentioned, was appointed to address the Legislature upon the interests of education, and a premium of twenty dollars was offered for the best essay on the improvement of common school education in the State.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Trenton, January 18th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by the President, on the "*School Laws of New Jersey;*" by Prof. J. T. Clark, of New Brunswick, on "*Normal Schools;*" and by Henry Barnard, on the "*School Systems of Europe.*" Papers were also read by Prof. J. Sanford Smith, upon the "*State Superintendency;*" by C. C. Hoagland, on "*Teachers' Institutes;*" and an essay, by J. T. Clark, to whom had been awarded the premium offered at the previous meeting. C. C. Hoagland, who during the year had been active in conducting Institutes and for more than twenty years had been zealously engaged in educational labors within the State, was appointed State Agent. The New York Teacher was adopted as organ of the Association and Prof. David Cole appointed as corresponding editor. The following officers were elected:—J. T. Clark, *Pres.* W. D. Wiltsie and S. Freeman, *Vice-Pres.* David Cole, J. E. Haynes, and J. B. Woodward, *Sec.;* and M. H. Doolittle, *Treas.*

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newark, December 27th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by Hon. R. S. Field, on "*Education in our Common Schools;*" by J. T. Clark, on "*Socrates, the Model Teacher;*" by S. S. Randall, on the "*Principles lying at the Basis of Success in Common School Labor;*" and by Prof. Foster, of Union College, on "*Extreme Views on Education.*" J. B. Thompson was appointed State Agent in place of C. C. Hoagland, to whom a vote of thanks was given for his numerous services in the cause of education. Of this gentleman's labors, William H. Wells thus *wrote in 1856:*—

"This State owes more to his judicious and indefatigable labors for her educational progress than to any other man. Had it not been for him we should not have had our Institute and our Normal School. He has been the life and soul of every really progressive movement in behalf of popular education in this State for the last ten years. His own county (Somerset) has been admitted to be for several years the "banner county," and this mainly through the exertions of Dr. Hoagland. As a conductor of Institutes, he has few if any equals. He possesses energy, tact, and experience, which eminently fit him especially for pioneer movements education-ward."

The following officers were elected:—J. S. Smith, *Pres.* P. L. F. Reynolds and O. A. Kibbe, *Vice-Pres.* T. J. Connalty and G. B. Sears, *Sec.* Samuel Backus, *Treas.*

Fourth Annual Meeting.—At Bridgeton, August 27th, 1856. Addresses were made, more or less formal, by the President, on the "*History of Education in New Jersey;*" by Prof. W. F. Phelps, on the "*Normal School,*" and on "*State School Superintendence;*" by J. B. Thompson, on the "*New Jersey School System;*" and by David Cole, on "*District Libraries.*" Discussions were also held on the subjects of "*School Libraries,*" and "*Township Appropriations.*" Reports were received upon the condition of education in several of the counties, and from the State Agent, who had been indefatigable in his labors and had carried Teachers' Institutes into every county. The following officers were elected:—Isaiah Peckham, *Pres.* W. W. Swett and Colister Morton, *Vice-Pres.* A. Thompson, *Sec.* S. Backus, *Treas.* J. B. Thompson was reappointed State Agent.

Fifth Annual Meeting.—At Trenton, Dec. 29th, 1857. Addresses by the President, on "*Teaching as a Science;*" by Prof. W. F. Phelps, on the "*Necessity of State Education;*" by Prof. H. Krusi, on "*Pestalozzi;*" and by Dr. Paris, of Philadelphia, on the "*Claims of Idiocy.*" A discussion was held upon "*Teachers' Institutes,*" and upon the "*Right to an Education,*" and the State Agent made his report. A committee was appointed to urge upon the Legislature the appointment of a State Board of Education. The following officers were elected:—William F. Phelps, *Pres.* B. Harrison and S. A. Farrand, *Vice Pres.* G. B. Sears and O. A. Kibbe, *Sec.* S. C. Webb, *Treas.* J. B. Thompson, *State Agent.*

Sixth Annual Meeting.—At Jersey City, Dec. 28th, 1858. Lectures delivered by T. W. Valentine, on "*Young America;*" by Prof. J. S. Hart, on "*Attention;*" by H. L. Smith and S. J. Sedgwick, on "*Physical Education;*" and essays were read from Mrs. E. V. Smith, on "*School Postures;*" and by H. Q. Johnson, on the "*Teacher and his Profession;*" all of which gave rise to more or less extended discussion. The State Agent made his third annual report, stating that Teachers' Institutes had been held during the

year in nineteen counties with increased interest. The committee on a State Board of Education submitted a report, and after an interesting debate, were instructed to present a memorial on the subject to the Legislature at its next session. An important discussion was also held upon the necessity of arousing popular attention to the cause of education and the duty of the clergy in relation thereto. Officers elected:—B. Harrison, *Pres.* A. J. Doremus and G. Berry, *Vice-Pres.* G. H. Linley and C. T. Wright, *Sec.* J. A. Hallock, *Treas.*

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Camden, Dec. 28th, 1859. Addresses by the President, on "*Worthiness, not Happiness, the end in Morals;*" by Rev. J. M. Johnson, on "*Public Schools in the Rural Districts;*" by Wm. McNeely, on "*County Educational Associations;*" and by E. W. Keyes, Esq., on "*Education in Life, and Life in Education.*" Messrs. Wight, Phelps and Peckham were appointed a committee to urge upon the Legislature the subject of a State Board of Education. Officers elected: Nathan Hedges, *Pres.* Wm. A. Breckenridge and Henry K. Bugbee, *Vice-Pres.* Samuel A. Farrand, *Rec. Sec.* Caleb M. Harrison, *Cor. Sec.;* and Wm. McNeely, *Treas.*

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Paterson, Dec. 26th, 1860. Addresses by Geo. B. Sears, on "*Methods of School Examination;*" by the President, on "*Schools of the Olden Time;*" by C. M. Harrison, on the "*Progress of Educational Reform;*" by Prof. Youmans, on the "*Natural Sciences;*" by G. Berry, on the "*Relations of Home to School;*" and by E. A. Sheldon and N. A. Calkins, on "*Object Teaching.*" Officers elected:—F. W. Ricord, *Pres.* C. S. Hosford and R. De Hait, *Vice-Pres.* S. A. Farrand, *Rec. Sec.* E. G. Upson, *Cor. Sec.;* and J. E. Haynes, *Treas.*

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newark, April 1st, 1862. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, on the "*Principles of Universal Education;*" by the President, on the "*Relations of Education to National Prosperity;*" by Wm. A. Whitehead, on "*Reading;*" by Wm. D. Casterline, on the "*Moral and Religious Influence of the Teacher in the School-room;*" and by B. J. Howe, on "*Education and Government.*" C. S. Hosford was elected President, and S. A. Farrand, Secretary.

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bridgeton, Dec. 29th, 1862. Addresses by John S. Hart, LL. D., on "*Normal Schools;*" by Hon. F. W. Ricord, on the "*School Laws of New Jersey;*" by John Gosman, A. M., on the "*Relations and Duties of Teachers to the*

Country;" and by Prof. Phelps, on a "*Course of Study for Public Schools.*" A paper was read by Mrs. P. C. Case, on "*Object Teaching.*" Among the questions discussed was the "*Desirableness of Military Drill in our Public Schools.*" The resolutions embraced patriotic utterances on the state of the country. S. A. Farrand was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Secretary.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At New Brunswick, Dec. 28th, 1863. Addresses were delivered by W. N. Barringer, A. M., on the "*Objects of Education;*" by Rev. O. R. Willis, on the "*Influence of the Study of Natural History upon Intellectual Education;*" by Rev. Wm. Travis, upon a "*National System of Education;*" by Hon. F. W. Ricord, on the "*Teacher's Work;*" and by Isaiah Peckham, A. M., on "*Education—a Growth.*" A paper was read by Silas Betts upon the "*Comparative Merits of Male and Female Teachers;*" and a report was made by Mr. Ricord concerning teachers of New Jersey who have entered the Union army. L. H. Gauze read a paper on the "*Relation between Common Schools and a Free Government.*" A resolution was unanimously adopted urging upon the Legislature the establishment of a State Reform School. C. M. Harrison was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Secretary.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Rahway, Dec. 27th, 1864. Addresses were delivered by Prof. David Cole, of Rutgers College, on the "*Progress of Education in the State of New Jersey;*" by E. O. Chapman, on the "*Necessary Work still remaining to be done in the Cause of Education;*" by J. M. Quinlan, on "*Education and the War;*" by T. H. Gemmel, subject, "*What is the Teacher?*" and by the President, on the "*State School System.*" A report of the Committee on a "*Uniform Course of Study*" was made by Prof. Peckham. Wm. D. Casterline read a paper on the "*Elements of the Successful Teacher;*" and Joseph E. Haynes made a report from the Committee on a "*State Reform School.*" H. B. Pierce, of Trenton, was elected President, and Wm. D. Casterline, Vice-President.

The Association is and always has been composed mainly of active, energetic *teachers*, none but those actually engaged in the school-room being admitted to the privileges of full membership, though school officers and others may become honorary members. It has accomplished very much towards the elevation of the standard of common school education in the State, and it is steadily growing, from year to year, in numbers and influence.

NEW JERSEY EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

NATHAN HEDGES.

NATHAN HEDGES, the President of the Convention which formed the New Jersey State Teachers' Association, was born in Bridgehampton, on Long Island, N. Y., Dec. 21, 1792. His early education was in a country school of the "poorest sort" until 1806, when he had the good fortune to attend the New Warren Academy in Morristown, then under the mastership of James Stevenson, born and educated in Scotland—a scholar and Christian gentleman, and afterward, at the Morris Academy, taught by William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, and a classical teacher of great accuracy and thoroughness. Under these two teachers for four years he made as much progress as could be made with but scanty material aids, by good abilities, and conscientious diligence, when his eyesight failing him, he was induced to teach a neighboring village school for nearly three years. This he did with great acceptance to his pupils and their parents, as well as pleasure to himself. After attending again the Morris Academy for a year or more, he was compelled to leave, on account of continued weakness of his eyes, and resumed teaching in 1815. In 1816 he engaged in mercantile business, to which he had served an apprenticeship, and so continued for four or five years. In 1825 he resumed teaching in Morristown, continued until 1824, when he removed to Newark, where he has now been teaching forty-one years. His business training gave shape to his plans and methods as a teacher—it having been his constant aim in his private day-school to make intelligent, competent, and self-reliant business men. He has taught but few studies—the correct spelling, reading, writing, and speaking the English language, a thorough practical knowledge of geography, history, mathematics, and book-keeping—and to these he has added for his best class of boys a thorough drill in Latin, partly for its own use in a knowledge of English, and partly as mental discipline. His scholars on leaving school could at once take important positions in counting-rooms and other large business establishments. Mr. Hedges has from the start taken an active interest in all educational conventions and associations—City, County, State, and National. He has thus kept his own professional knowledge up to the standard of the more advanced teachers, and helped to elevate higher and higher the popular appreciation of the school and a school system, without which the teacher's work will never be properly compensated. To keep his own health up to the exhausting requisitions of the school-room for so many years, he has systematically devoted himself daily and vigorously, before and after school-hours, to the cultivation of fruit and a garden, and thus preserved a cheerful temper, and the ability to be present, without a failure for a single day, since he commenced the practice thirty years ago, and discharge his full duty as a teacher. "May he live a thousand years and his shadow never be less."

or propriety. Mathematics, so far as I can recollect, did not go beyond Dilworth. English Grammar was considered to be of no use. Latin Grammar was all-sufficient. In Geography a few young men used "Guthrie's New System of Modern Geography," an octavo of perhaps 800 pages, without an atlas.

On the wall hung an old map of Europe, the first wall-map I had ever seen. At that time I had not seen an atlas, and think none intended for schools had been published. We had a Terrestrial Globe, kept for ornament, not for use.

With the scant preparation above indicated, boys were put to studying Latin, and in that the want of proper method and of suitable books was about as great as in the English department. To illustrate my meaning, it is enough for me to say, that I was set to committing the grammar, committed it through, and then commenced again and perhaps went a second time through, without the slightest exercise or instruction in the use of the declensions, or of the conjugations; without any explanation of the agreement of adjectives with their nouns and pronouns; without any explanation of the application of a single rule, or of any thing else belonging to the language. A boy properly taught now, in such a manual as Goodrich's or Andrews' Latin Lessons, gets more accurate knowledge, in the first week of this study, than I acquired by the drudgery of three or perhaps six months. This beginning in Latin was under the supervision of a gentleman of talents, who graduated with distinction at Princeton a few years before. After reading a little of Corderius and some other small book, I was advanced to Cæsar's Commentaries, and by the help of hard work and poor instruction got through the first four books, with very little knowledge of the language.

In Morristown there was (and is) another Academy, older and of more extended reputation, at the head of which Samuel Whelpley (of Lenox, Mass.) had stood for many years. In 1809 he was succeeded by his nephew, William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, an excellent scholar, a faithful teacher, and a true gentleman. I entered the Academy early in 1810. The Academy had three departments—Juvenile, English, and Classical. When I entered it, the Classical Department had more than sixty pupils, almost all boarders from New York and the Southern States. There Latin and Greek were taught with critical accuracy and great thoroughness. Although we lacked many useful books, which have since been prepared, yet I think our method of instruction had, in several particulars, a decided advantage over the more modern practice.

1. We were not allowed to use Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary until we had used Tyro for one or two years. Thus we were compelled to become perfectly familiar with the formation and radical meaning of Latin derivatives. To this day I am conscious of the influence of this early and thorough drill.

2. We were drilled in "Mair's Introduction" (to making Latin.) This secured a most intimate acquaintance with the grammatical construction of sentences. I have seen no book since which seems to me so well calculated to secure that end.

3. In our recitations of Virgil, Horace, Homer, and other classic poets, we were never allowed to translate a sentence, until we had scanned it. To us, poetry was poetry indeed.

With regard to studies other than classical, (in the classical department,) I can not say much to the credit of this loved and useful Institution.

In *Reading*, forty or more would stand up in one class and read a few sen-

tences each, in Murray's Sequel. The exercise was merely formal and nearly useless.

In *English Grammar* we did nothing. We had no such class. Latin grammar was all in all.

In *Mathematics* we did almost nothing. Euclid, I think, occasionally received a little attention, but so little that I am in doubt about it.

Composition and *declamation* were well taught.

To *Geography* we paid no attention. We had no maps and no globes. I remember that I got an extra lesson (in geography) to recite in the English Department, (perhaps in 1811,) in which I used Morse's two large octavos, and his Atlas of sixty-two maps, together I think costing about twenty dollars, a price putting them out of the reach of a great majority of pupils.

The blackboard, now indispensable to the teacher, in so many branches of study, then had no existence.

Such are my recollections and impressions of schools, from the worst to the best, as they were from 1797 to 1812. Having been from that time to the present constantly familiar with schools, (you know I am yet actively engaged in teaching,) I may perhaps without impropriety note some of the points in which the schools of the present day differ from the schools existing at the beginning of the present century. I will notice several particulars under their appropriate heads.

1. *School-houses.*—During our colonial vassalage, our people were few, scattered, and poor. The Revolutionary War of seven years exhausted the resources of the country, and left neither means nor heart for any thing but the supply of the most urgent wants of the body. Mental culture, for the million, was almost entirely out of the question. Hence, school-houses were few and of the cheapest kind. Now in every free State the whole wealth of the land is subject to taxation to furnish houses as good as can be desired.

2. *Teachers.*—The men of the generation immediately succeeding the Revolution enjoyed but slender advantages of education; and teaching was so poorly paid, that educated men were seldom tempted to seek it as an employment. Hence, the teachers in our farming districts were generally ignorant, uncultivated, and often intemperate foreigners. Now teaching is a profession. Wealth without stint is expended on Schools, High Schools, Normal Schools, Institutes, Colleges, and Universities for the education of young men and young women, and the best talents in the land find teaching both congenial and remunerative.

3. *Books.*—The teacher of the present day can scarcely realize how utterly destitute were our schools of any suitable books. In the first few years of the present century I saw no class of young learners supplied with suitable reading-books, nor did I in those days see any school even half supplied with any arithmetic, grammar, geography, or atlas. Excepting a few Dilworth's Arithmetics, there were no such books to be found in one of twenty of our common schools. Our Academies were but little in advance of the common schools in this respect. Now the only difficulty is, among a multitude that are good to select the best.

4. *School Apparatus.*—Rough, dark, unruled paper was used for writing.*

* Each pupil was furnished with a rule, and plummet attached to it, with which he ruled his paper, generally in a very slovenly and irregular way.

or propriety. Mathematics, so far as I can recollect, did not go beyond Dilworth. English Grammar was considered to be of no use. Latin Grammar was all-sufficient. In Geography a few young men used "Guthrie's New System of Modern Geography," an octavo of perhaps 800 pages, without an atlas.

On the wall hung an old map of Europe, the first wall-map I had ever seen. At that time I had not seen an atlas, and think none intended for schools had been published. We had a Terrestrial Globe, kept for ornament, not for use.

With the scant preparation above indicated, boys were put to studying Latin, and in that the want of proper method and of suitable books was about as great as in the English department. To illustrate my meaning, it is enough for me to say, that I was set to committing the grammar, committed it through, and then commenced again and perhaps went a second time through, without the slightest exercise or instruction in the use of the declensions, or of the conjugations; without any explanation of the agreement of adjectives with their nouns and pronouns; without any explanation of the application of a single rule, or of any thing else belonging to the language. A boy properly taught now, in such a manual as Goodrich's or Andrews' Latin Lessons, gets more accurate knowledge, in the first week of this study, than I acquired by the drudgery of three or perhaps six months. This beginning in Latin was under the supervision of a gentleman of talents, who graduated with distinction at Princeton a few years before. After reading a little of Corderius and some other small book, I was advanced to Cæsar's Commentaries, and by the help of hard work and poor instruction got through the first four books, with very little knowledge of the language.

In Morristown there was (and is) another Academy, older and of more extended reputation, at the head of which Samuel Whelpley (of Lenox, Mass.) had stood for many years. In 1809 he was succeeded by his nephew, William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, an excellent scholar, a faithful teacher, and a true gentleman. I entered the Academy early in 1810. The Academy had three departments—Juvenile, English, and Classical. When I entered it, the Classical Department had more than sixty pupils, almost all boarders from New York and the Southern States. There Latin and Greek were taught with critical accuracy and great thoroughness. Although we lacked many useful books, which have since been prepared, yet I think our method of instruction had, in several particulars, a decided advantage over the more modern practice.

1. We were not allowed to use Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary until we had used Tyro for one or two years. Thus we were compelled to become perfectly familiar with the formation and radical meaning of Latin derivatives. To this day I am conscious of the influence of this early and thorough drill.

2. We were drilled in "Mair's Introduction" (to making Latin.) This secured a most intimate acquaintance with the grammatical construction of sentences. I have seen no book since which seems to me so well calculated to secure that end.

3. In our recitations of Virgil, Horace, Homer, and other classic poets, we were never allowed to translate a sentence, until we had scanned it. To us, poetry was poetry indeed.

With regard to studies other than classical, (in the classical department,) I can not say much to the credit of this loved and useful Institution.

In *Reading*, forty or more would stand up in one class and read a few sen-

tences each, in Murray's Sequel. The exercise was merely formal and nearly useless.

In *English Grammar* we did nothing. We had no such class. Latin grammar was all in all.

In *Mathematics* we did almost nothing. Euclid, I think, occasionally received a little attention, but so little that I am in doubt about it.

Composition and *declamation* were well taught.

To *Geography* we paid no attention. We had no maps and no globes. I remember that I got an extra lesson (in geography) to recite in the English Department, (perhaps in 1811,) in which I used Morse's two large octavos, and his Atlas of sixty-two maps, together I think costing about twenty dollars, a price putting them out of the reach of a great majority of pupils.

The blackboard, now indispensable to the teacher, in so many branches of study, then had no existence.

Such are my recollections and impressions of schools, from the worst to the best, as they were from 1797 to 1812. Having been from that time to the present constantly familiar with schools, (you know I am yet actively engaged in teaching,) I may perhaps without impropriety note some of the points in which the schools of the present day differ from the schools existing at the beginning of the present century. I will notice several particulars under their appropriate heads.

1. *School-houses.*—During our colonial vassalage, our people were few, scattered, and poor. The Revolutionary War of seven years exhausted the resources of the country, and left neither means nor heart for any thing but the supply of the most urgent wants of the body. Mental culture, for the million, was almost entirely out of the question. Hence, school-houses were few and of the cheapest kind. Now in every free State the whole wealth of the land is subject to taxation to furnish houses as good as can be desired.

2. *Teachers.*—The men of the generation immediately succeeding the Revolution enjoyed but slender advantages of education; and teaching was so poorly paid, that educated men were seldom tempted to seek it as an employment. Hence, the teachers in our farming districts were generally ignorant, uncultivated, and often intemperate foreigners. Now teaching is a profession. Wealth without stint is expended on Schools, High Schools, Normal Schools, Institutes, Colleges, and Universities for the education of young men and young women, and the best talents in the land find teaching both congenial and remunerative.

3. *Books.*—The teacher of the present day can scarcely realize how utterly destitute were our schools of any suitable books. In the first few years of the present century I saw no class of young learners supplied with suitable reading-books, nor did I in those days see any school even half supplied with any arithmetic, grammar, geography, or atlas. Excepting a few Dilworth's Arithmetics, there were no such books to be found in one of twenty of our common schools. Our Academies were but little in advance of the common schools in this respect. Now the only difficulty is, among a multitude that are good to select the best.

4. *School Apparatus.*—Rough, dark, unruled paper was used for writing.*

* Each pupil was furnished with a rule, and plummet attached to it, with which he ruled his paper, generally in a very slovenly and irregular way.

or propriety. Mathematics, so far as I can recollect, did not go beyond Dilworth. English Grammar was considered to be of no use. Latin Grammar was all-sufficient. In Geography a few young men used "Guthrie's New System of Modern Geography," an octavo of perhaps 800 pages, without an atlas.

On the wall hung an old map of Europe, the first wall-map I had ever seen. At that time I had not seen an atlas, and think none intended for schools had been published. We had a Terrestrial Globe, kept for ornament, not for use.

With the scant preparation above indicated, boys were put to studying Latin, and in that the want of proper method and of suitable books was about as great as in the English department. To illustrate my meaning, it is enough for me to say, that I was set to committing the grammar, committed it through, and then commenced again and perhaps went a second time through, without the slightest exercise or instruction in the use of the declensions, or of the conjugations; without any explanation of the agreement of adjectives with their nouns and pronouns; without any explanation of the application of a single rule, or of any thing else belonging to the language. A boy properly taught now, in such a manual as Goodrich's or Andrews' Latin Lessons, gets more accurate knowledge, in the first week of this study, than I acquired by the drudgery of three or perhaps six months. This beginning in Latin was under the supervision of a gentleman of talents, who graduated with distinction at Princeton a few years before. After reading a little of Corderius and some other small book, I was advanced to Cæsar's Commentaries, and by the help of hard work and poor instruction got through the first four books, with very little knowledge of the language.

In Morristown there was (and is) another Academy, older and of more extended reputation, at the head of which Samuel Whelpley (of Lenox, Mass.) had stood for many years. In 1809 he was succeeded by his nephew, William A. Whelpley, a graduate of Yale, an excellent scholar, a faithful teacher, and a true gentleman. I entered the Academy early in 1810. The Academy had three departments—Juvenile, English, and Classical. When I entered it, the Classical Department had more than sixty pupils, almost all boarders from New York and the Southern States. There Latin and Greek were taught with critical accuracy and great thoroughness. Although we lacked many useful books, which have since been prepared, yet I think our method of instruction had, in several particulars, a decided advantage over the more modern practice.

1. We were not allowed to use Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary until we had used Tyro for one or two years. Thus we were compelled to become perfectly familiar with the formation and radical meaning of Latin derivatives. To this day I am conscious of the influence of this early and thorough drill.

2. We were drilled in "Mair's Introduction" (to making Latin.) This secured a most intimate acquaintance with the grammatical construction of sentences. I have seen no book since which seems to me so well calculated to secure that end.

3. In our recitations of Virgil, Horace, Homer, and other classic poets, we were never allowed to translate a sentence, until we had scanned it. To us, poetry was poetry indeed.

With regard to studies other than classical, (in the classical department,) I can not say much to the credit of this loved and useful Institution.

In *Reading*, forty or more would stand up in one class and read a few sen-

tences each, in Murray's Sequel. The exercise was merely formal and nearly useless.

In *English Grammar* we did nothing. We had no such class. Latin grammar was all in all.

In *Mathematics* we did almost nothing. Euclid, I think, occasionally received a little attention, but so little that I am in doubt about it.

Composition and *declamation* were well taught.

To *Geography* we paid no attention. We had no maps and no globes. I remember that I got an extra lesson (in geography) to recite in the English Department, (perhaps in 1811,) in which I used Morse's two large octavos, and his Atlas of sixty-two maps, together I think costing about twenty dollars, a price putting them out of the reach of a great majority of pupils.

The blackboard, now indispensable to the teacher, in so many branches of study, then had no existence.

Such are my recollections and impressions of schools, from the worst to the best, as they were from 1797 to 1812. Having been from that time to the present constantly familiar with schools, (you know I am yet actively engaged in teaching,) I may perhaps without impropriety note some of the points in which the schools of the present day differ from the schools existing at the beginning of the present century. I will notice several particulars under their appropriate heads.

1. *School-houses.*—During our colonial vassalage, our people were few, scattered, and poor. The Revolutionary War of seven years exhausted the resources of the country, and left neither means nor heart for any thing but the supply of the most urgent wants of the body. Mental culture, for the million, was almost entirely out of the question. Hence, school-houses were few and of the cheapest kind. Now in every free State the whole wealth of the land is subject to taxation to furnish houses as good as can be desired.

2. *Teachers.*—The men of the generation immediately succeeding the Revolution enjoyed but slender advantages of education; and teaching was so poorly paid, that educated men were seldom tempted to seek it as an employment. Hence, the teachers in our farming districts were generally ignorant, uncultivated, and often intemperate foreigners. Now teaching is a profession. Wealth without stint is expended on Schools, High Schools, Normal Schools, Institutes, Colleges, and Universities for the education of young men and young women, and the best talents in the land find teaching both congenial and remunerative.

3. *Books.*—The teacher of the present day can scarcely realize how utterly destitute were our schools of any suitable books. In the first few years of the present century I saw no class of young learners supplied with suitable reading-books, nor did I in those days see any school even half supplied with any arithmetic, grammar, geography, or atlas. Excepting a few Dilworth's Arithmetics, there were no such books to be found in one of twenty of our common schools. Our Academies were but little in advance of the common schools in this respect. Now the only difficulty is, among a multitude that are good to select the best.

4. *School Apparatus.*—Rough, dark, unruled paper was used for writing.*

* Each pupil was furnished with a rule, and plummet attached to it, with which he ruled his paper, generally in a very slovenly and irregular way.

There were no blackboards, no geometrical figures, no globes. In short, I might almost say, "there was nothing to do, and nothing to do it with."

5. *Teaching* was not then a profession. It was the accidental employment for three months in the year of some useless drone unfit for any thing else. Now untold amounts of wealth are consecrated to the educating and training the best intellects in the land for the business of teaching.

6. *The work performed.*—The teacher of those days seemed to have no definite ideas of the proper method of communicating instruction. The best educated teachers, in our best schools, seem to me, as I look back fifty years or more, to have had no object, to have had no plan, to have had little or no acquaintance with the mind, or the capabilities of the pupil. They seem to me not to have known how to communicate knowledge. They had no idea of analyzing a subject and helping the pupil to comprehend each of the parts. They had not made themselves acquainted with the faculties of the human mind, and never inquired which could be advantageously employed in early years, nor which must be left for later efforts. They seem to have had no idea of presenting a single fact, thought, truth, or idea, to the pupil's mind, and pressing it upon his attention until he fully comprehended it. They had no idea of drill, drill. Hence, poor workmen succeeded easily in making poor scholars.

Now teaching is a science. It is reduced to principles; and the well-instructed teacher, in a commodious house, with excellent books, with abundant apparatus, with a clear comprehension of the object he aims at, assisted by a proper division of labor among skillful subordinates, with head and heart full of his work, may expect to be a constant blessing to the boys and girls of this generation, and to be abundantly successful in preparing them to discharge intelligently the duties of the men and women of the next.

Yours truly, NATHAN HEDGES.

Newark, N. J., August, 1865.

[To the above valuable communication we add a few paragraphs from another letter, which we have received from Mr. Hedges, and which we intend to print entire.—*Editor.*]

In view of the long course of years that I have spent in teaching, (now a full half-century,] people often wonder that I am not *worn out.* My experience may be useful, not only to young teachers, but to others whose occupation depends more on the brain than on muscle. During the first fifteen years or more after I commenced teaching I was slender, and had much less than an average amount of bodily vigor. From 1821 to 1827 I had very little opportunity for out-door employment. In school I taught earnestly; out of school I studied or read constantly, and my bodily health and strength ran down to the lowest point. I was scarcely able to walk the street, or to go up a stairway to my school-room. In 1827 I purchased about four acres of ground a little distance from my school-room. I at once devoted my hours, not required in school, to cheerful and earnest out-door labor. When in school I thought of nothing else. When I left the room I left all its cares behind. I devoted my time and mind to horticulture, and to all those employments which a *home* calls for, and which keep the mind and body in cheerful, healthful exercise, and from that time to this (excepting a single day, due to my own imprudence) I have never been absent from school an hour from lack of health. No teacher works more earnestly, yet I never feel weariness at the end of the day, at the end of the week, nor at the end of the year. Half of the best graduates of our colleges, and more than half of the best graduates of Ladies' Schools, are disabled, entirely unfitted for usefulness, by the overtaxing the brain and neglecting other parts of the body.

Engd by Geo. F. Perkins & Co. N.Y.

ISAIAH PECKHAM.

ISAIAH PECKHAM was born, November 9th, 1823, near Binghamton, New York. His parents were both from New England, and his father, though mainly engaged in farming, was for many years a successful teacher of common schools during successive winter terms, acquiring considerable reputation in his neighborhood as a ready and skillful mathematician. The influences of his home were favorable to intellectual development, and to these were added the advantages of good district-schools, in which he always took high rank. On his seventeenth birthday he assumed the charge of a large district-school, in which many of the pupils were considerably older than himself, and one had herself been a teacher for several successive summer terms, yet he passed successfully through the ordeal. After teaching three terms, however, an ardent desire to extend his own education more rapidly led him to become a student at the Binghamton Academy, which was in a high state of efficiency under the principalship of Mr. E. M. Rollo. He highly appreciated the advantages here afforded him, and eagerly availed himself of them; and here, so far as school life was concerned, his scholastic course was completed. In point of fact, however, his life-long habits as a student have enabled him to make extensive subsequent acquisitions, and to attain by personal effort to that breadth and completeness of culture which belong to a liberal education.

In 1845 he became a tutor in the family of Mr. David Ripley of Nichols, Tioga county, New York, and removed with the family the same year to Newark, N. J., where for some months he assumed the foremanship of one department of Mr. Ripley's business. He subsequently took charge for one year of the public school at the village of Irvington, N. J., but married and again returned for a short time to the business position before mentioned. In 1849 he accepted the principalship of the Lock Street Grammar School of Newark, then just opened. His administration here was very successful, and he remained about five years, resigning in 1854, at the solicitation of Mr. David Ripley and other benevolent gentlemen, to accept the superintendency of the Newark "Industrial Schools," institutions analagous to the "Ragged Schools" of England, and designed to reach and elevate the very lowest class of children. Three of these schools were organized, in different parts of the city, under his supervision, and have ever since remained in successful operation—the moral and industrial departments flourishing under the fostering care of contemporaneously-formed associations of benevolent ladies, and the scholastic department under that of the Board of Education. For about one year, commencing with September, 1853, Mr. Peckham edited the educational department of the "*Life Boat and Literary Standard*," the only educational organ ever published in New Jersey; and on its discontinuance he became editor of the New Jersey department in the New York Teacher.

When the high school edifice of Newark was completed in the Autumn of the year 1854, and the first head of the institution was to be selected, the Committee on Teachers of the Board of Education unanimously recommended Mr. Peckham for the principalship, and he was, with the same unanimity, elected by the Board. He spent the month of December in visiting the public schools of other cities, principally those of Boston, with a view of collecting information likely to prove serviceable in his new position, and, in January, 1855, the High

School of Newark was opened under his care, with a corps of ten teachers and nearly four hundred pupils. In April following, the Newark Saturday Normal School was opened—designed for the improvement and education of teachers, and meeting in the High School building on Saturday morning of each week. Mr. Peckham was elected by the Board to the principalship of this institution also, and from it have been drawn nearly all the teachers subsequently employed in the schools of the city.

In August, 1856, Mr. Peckham was elected for one year to the presidency of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association—an organization of which he had been one of the originators, and of which he has always been one of the most active promoters. In the same month he received from the University of Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, the honorary degree of A. M.

In March, 1854, the Legislature of New Jersey had passed an act to establish Teachers' Institutes in every county of the State. For the first year these were conducted mainly by Dr. C. C. Hoagland, and for the next two by Rev. John B. Thompson; but from that time to the present, no educator of the State has been so largely engaged in conducting them as Mr. Peckham. His vacations, for many years past, have been almost exclusively occupied in this work.

In June, 1866, finding that these multifarious labors were beginning to tell unfavorably upon his health, and believing that a change of employment was in consequence demanded, he resigned the principalship of both the High School and the City Normal School, and detached himself entirely from all official connection with the work of education, to accept the proffer of the General Agency for New Jersey of the Continental Life Insurance Company of New York.

Mr. Peckham had been connected with the High School nearly twelve years, during which period upwards of two thousand pupils had been in attendance at the institution; one thousand and seventy-four having been received into the Male Department, and one thousand one hundred and seventeen into the Female. "If," said Superintendent George B. Sears, in his last annual report,—"if it were necessary to produce any evidence of the value of this institution to the community, it would seem to be sufficient to point to the roll of its graduates. From the female department have gone forth hundreds capable of adorning any profession or position within the reach of woman. * * * From the male department have gone forth hundreds of young men who look from their positions of usefulness upon the High School as their *alma mater*, and who annually come together to celebrate the victories here achieved, and to invoke blessings upon the heads of those who inaugurated and who have so liberally sustained this department of our educational system."

IOWA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE earliest State Association originated in a call which appeared in the "*Iowa Journal of Education*" in March, 1854, first suggested by Rev. Jerome Allen, Principal of Maquoketa Academy, and signed by a score of most prominent teachers in the State. The convention met at Muscatine on the 10th of May, 1854, D. F. Wells was appointed chairman, and the Association was organized by the adoption of a constitution and the election of officers, as follows:—Hon. J. A. Parvin, *President;* Rev. D. Lane, *Vice President;* D. Franklin Wells and Rev. S. Newbury, *Secretaries;* G. W. Drake, *Treasurer;* S. Newbury, G. B. Denison, Rev. W. W. Woods, Rev. D. S. Sheldon, and Rev. H. K. Edson, *Executive Committee.* Little of other business was done. A second meeting was held at Iowa City, December 27th, of the same year, at which several resolutions relative to Teachers' Institutes and graded schools were discussed, and addresses were delivered by the President, upon the "*Necessity of Universal Education,*" and by Prof. Jerome Allen, on the "*Utility of Chemistry.*" The attendance was but small, and as the meeting appointed to be held at Davenport, September 4th, 1855, proved a failure, nothing more was attempted by this organization.

A call for a second convention was made early in 1856 by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. James D. Eads, which assembled at Iowa City on the 16th of June. James L. Enos was elected chairman and D. F. Wells, secretary of the convention, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to organize under the constitution of the first association. The organization of a new association was, however, decided upon, and a constitution was reported by Prof. Von Valkenburg of the Normal Department of the State University, which was adopted. An address was delivered by Mrs. C. V. Wait of Chicago, and resolutions passed in favor of the establishment of a Teachers' Journal, for which a board of editors was appointed.

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.—At Muscatine, October 7th, 1856.

At this meeting the following officers were elected:—D. F. Wells, *Pres.* Jerome Allen, G. W. Drake, J. F. Sanford, W. D. Wilson, and Rev. D. Lane, *Vice Pres.* J. L. Enos and F. Humphreys, *Sec.* G. B. Denison, *Treas.* D. F. Wells, C. C. Childs, F. Humphreys, J. H. Sanders, and Samuel McNutt, *Ex. Com.* The Executive Committee were authorized, at their discretion, to commence the publication of a Teachers' Journal. The first number of the "*Voice of Iowa*" accordingly appeared in January following, under the editorship of J. L. Enos, by whom the journal was continued for two years.

A semi-annual meeting was held at Dubuque, April 15th, 1857. The sessions were spent mainly in the discussion of methods of teaching, addresses were delivered by the President and others, and resolutions were adopted in relation to a State Reform School, Phonetics, &c.

Second Annual Meeting.—At Iowa City, August 11th, 1857. Addresses were delivered by Prof. W. E. Ijams, on "*The Claims of Patriotism and Humanity upon the American Instructor;*" by Prof. J. M. Stone, on "*The Motives that should Sustain the Teacher in his Profession;*" and by Prof. R. Weiser, on "*The School—its Origin, Progress, and Importance.*" An essay was read by C. C. Nestlerode, on "*The Duty of the State to Educate her Children,*" and numerous resolutions were passed upon Teachers' Institutes, the use of the Bible in schools, a revision of the school law, graded schools, and other diverse subjects. C. C. Nestlerode was elected President, and Messrs. J. L. Enos, A. S. Kissell, D. F. Wells, L. H. Bugbee, and Miss M. M. Lyon, Executive Committee.

Third Annual Meeting.—At Davenport, August 7th, 8th, and 9th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by C. C. Nestlerode, on "*The Educational Condition of the State;*" by L. O. Stevens, on "*Systematic Education;*" and by F. Humphreys, on "*The Claims of the State University and its Relations to the Educational Interests of the State.*" A report was made in favor of memorializing the Legislature with reference to establishing a Reform School for juvenile offenders, and a resolution was also adopted in relation to the need of a Normal School exclusively for the education and training of teachers for the schools of the State. A large increase was made to the subscription list of the "*Voice of Iowa.*"

F. Humphreys was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, C. C. Childs, S. H. Weller, J. R. Doig, and M. B. Beals, Executive Committee, and appointments were also made of persons to conduct Institutes in the northern and southern sections of the State.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Washington, August 23d to 25th, 1859. This meeting was well attended and conducted with much spirit. Addresses were given by the President, on "*The Condition of the Public Schools of the State;*" by Rev. S. S. Howe, on "*The Light Literature of the Age;*" by Rev. M. K. Cross, on "*Sectarianism in Schools;*" and by Prof. A. A. Griffith, on "*Elocution and Reading.*" Essays by S. H. Weller, on "*The Co-education of the Sexes,*" and by Dr. Maynard, on "*The Duties of District School Directors.*" Some important resolutions and reports were adopted, relating to a State truant law, the school laws, the necessity of a State Normal School, music and Bible reading in schools, County Institutes, &c.

Prof. D. F. Wells was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, J. R. Doig, M. B. Beales, S. H. Weller, and J. H. Sanders, Executive Committee.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Tipton, August 28th to 31st, 1860. Addresses were delivered by the President, upon "*Self Culture and the Means of Obtaining it;*" by C. E. Hovey, upon "*How can Teachers Acquire and Maintain Respectability and Influence as Citizens?*" by Thomas H. Benton, Jr., on the "*Qualifications of Teachers;*" and by Hon. James Harlan. Essays were also read by Miss L. Humphrey, upon "*How shall we Teach?*" and by Miss Lizzie S. Gregg, on "*Elegance of Diction.*" Reports were made by M. Ingalls, on "*Prizes in Schools;*" by L. H. Smith, on "*English Grammar;*" by Mrs. M. A. McGonegal, on "*The Range of Studies demanded by our Present School System;*" by William Reynolds, on "*The History of Education and Educational Text-books,*" and upon a "*State Agency;*" by E. D. Jones, on "*Music;*" by J. L. Enos, on "*The Power of the Teacher and how to use it;*" by A. S. Kissel, on "*The Control of the Journal by the Teachers of the State;*" and by C. C. Nestlerode, on a "*Reform School for Juvenile Offenders,*" and upon a "*County Superintendency.*"

A. S. Kissell was elected President, and Messrs. C. C. Nestlerode, E. Y. Lane, M. Ingalls, J. W. Borland, and J. A. Young, Executive Committee. This meeting was marked by a still increased attendance and extended interest on the part of the teachers of the State.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Muscatine, August 23d, 1861. Addresses were delivered by the President upon "*Sphere of Associations;*" by Prof. Butler, of Tennessee, ——; by Prof. O. M. Spencer, of State University, on "*The Teacher's Mission;*" by Dr. Totten, President State University, on "*Progressive Education.*"

Essays were read by Dr. Sherman, of Muscatine, on the "*Anatomy of the Human Eye;*" by Mr. Geerdts, of Davenport, on "*Intuitive Instruction;*" by Miss Sallie Bonsall, on "*Teachers should be True Democrats.*"

Reports were made by Prof. T. S. Parvin, on "*State School Fund;*" by M. Ingalls, on "*School Officers;*" by Mr. Tooke, on "*Increased Importance of Continuing our Public Schools;*" by Rev. H. K. Edson, on "*Normal Classes;*" by C. F. Chase, of Chicago, on "*Reformatory Education;*" by Conis, on "*Visiting Power of County Superintendents,*" "*Competency and Permanancy of Teachers,*" "*School Houses,*" "*Normal Schools,*" "*Common School Libraries,*" *&c.*

Officers for the Ensuing Year.—*President;* C. C. Nestlerode, of Cedar County. *Vice Presidents;* H. K. Edson, Amos Dean, L. F. Parker, D. H. Goodno, and S. M. Fellows. *Recording Secretary;* W. O. Hiskey. *Treasurer;* George B. Denison. *Executive Committee;* A. S. Kissell, D. F. Wells, S. F. Cooper, F. Y. Lane, and M. K. Cross.

Seventh Annual Meeting.—Mount. Pleasant, August 19th, to 22d, 1862. Addresses were delivered by the President; by H. K. Edson, on "*School Discipline;*" by Rev. Wm. Salter, of Burlington, "*Two Weeks in Italy;*" by Prof. V. R. Leonard, of University, "*Why should Mathematical Studies be required of the Student, and at what Age;*" by Rev. Mr. K. Cross, "*Education of the Heart and Conscience;*" by W. H. Wells, of Chicago, on "*Philosophy of Education.*"

Discussions on "*State Agency,*" "*System of State Examination,*" "*Object Teaching,*" "*Physical Exercise in Schools,*" *&c.*

Officers for Ensuing Year.—*President;* Rev. M. K. Cross, Tipton, Cedar County. *Vice Presidents;* L. M. Hastings, J. E. Dow, G. F. Carpenter, J. D. Hornby, and Mrs. M. E. Culbertson. *Recording Secretary;* R. Hubbard. *Corresponding Secretary;* Miss. E. W. Berry. *Treasurer;* Miss. L. L. Newton.

[We have not been able to obtain the proceedings of the Annual Meetings for 1863 and 1864.]

IOWA EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

DAVID FRANKLIN WELLS, A. M.

DAVID FRANKLIN WELLS, first President of the Iowa State Teachers' Association, was born at Holland Patent, Oneida County, N. Y., June 22d, 1830, and was brought up upon his father's farm in the habits of industry and perseverance that characterize his class, enjoying the advantages of the common school in winter, and for a time attending the academy of his native village. He spent one winter as clerk in a country store, but commenced teaching at the age of nineteen in a district school with a salary of twelve dollars a month, "boarding around." His second school was at Trenton Falls, N. J., after which he entered the State Normal School at Albany, borrowing money to pay his expenses, where he graduated in 1852. He has since been constantly engaged in teaching, first at Barrytown, then at Tarrytown on the Hudson, and in 1853 as principal of a public school at Muscatine, Iowa. After organizing and grading this school he conducted it most successfully until August, 1856, when he accepted the professorship of the Theory and Practice of Teaching in the State University. His success in this position has been remarkable, and has clearly demonstrated that such a department wisely conducted can accomplish the professional training of teachers as well as an independent Normal School.

Mr. Wells has always been active in Teachers' Institutes within the State and in lecturing upon educational subjects. He was member and officer of the first State Association in 1854, and was elected President of the present association in 1855, and again in 1859, and it was mainly by his exertions that the "*Voice of Iowa*," the first organ of the association, was established.

REV. MOSES KIMBALL CROSS, A. M.

MOSES KIMBALL CROSS was born September 24th, 1812, in Danvers, Mass. His interest in study was specially awakened at the age of seventeen under the instruction of Master John Batchelder, for many years a successful teacher in the schools of Lynn. He commenced teaching the next year at Topsfield, and soon after entered upon a course of regular study, preparing for college principally at Phillips Academy, Andover, and graduating at Amherst in 1838, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1841. He was first settled in Palmer, Mass., in 1842, but in 1855 removed to Tipton, Iowa. During this time he has always taken special interest in teachers and schools, and has kept himself familiar and intimate with them, striving to help and encourage them whenever it was in his power. He has been almost constantly connected with town school committees, has attended meetings of Associations and Institutes, has delivered educational lectures, and contributed frequently to the educational journals. He was elected President of the State Association in 1863.

REV. H. K. EDSON, A. M.

HENRY KINGMAN EDSON was born in Hadley, Mass., October 5th, 1822. He fitted for college at the Hopkins Academy in his native town, of which, after graduation at Amherst in 1844, he was principal until 1849. He now for two years pursued his theological studies at the Andover and Union Seminaries. His success in teaching and the growing conviction of the greatness of the work, induced a change in his choice of a profession. In 1852 he became principal of the academy at Denmark, Iowa, where he has since labored with a care that has won him success, and with an earnestness in the common cause of education that has tended to make the profession esteemed and honorable in the popular estimation.

ORAN FAVILLE, A. M.

ORAN FAVILLE was born Oct. 13, 1817, at Manheim, Herkimer County, N. Y. He was brought up upon a farm and educated at the district schools, but having access to a small public library he was enabled to gratify a taste for reading and was prompted to higher things. He commenced teaching in the winter of 1834–5, and was engaged in schools in the following winters, until 1838, when he removed to Ohio, where he spent two years in teaching and in preparatory study at Granville College. He afterward studied two years at the Fairfield Academy in his native town, with intervals of teaching, and entered the Junior Class in Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., in 1842. After graduation he taught two years in the Oneida Conference Seminary at Cazenovia, N. Y., six years in the Troy Conference Seminary at West Poultney, Vt., and the next year in McKendree College at Lebanon, Ill. In 1853 he took charge of the Wesleyan Female College at Delaware, Ohio, but ill-health compelling him to resign his profession, he removed in 1855 to Iowa and commenced frontier life as a farmer in Mitchell County.

In Oct., 1857, Mr. Faville was elected Lieutenant Governor, and *ex officio* President of the State Board of Education, then newly organized. At its first session, in Dec., 1858, the Board adopted the main features of the present system of public instruction. In April, 1863, he became the acting Secretary of the Board, and in January following was appointed its Secretary by the Governor. In March, 1864, he was elected by the Legislature Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Board of Education having been abolished. In addition to his educational labors in the school and in public office, Mr. Faville has delivered various addresses at Teachers' Institutes and Associations, several of which have been published.

NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THERE have been few educational conventions and early associations in the State of New Hampshire that have left a record. Two or three County Lyceum Associations were formed in 1830–31 under the personal influence of Josiah Holbrook, but they probably scarcely survived their organization. In 1836, however, the "*Cheshire County Common School Association*" was organized, which is still in existence and merits further notice. In this county the friends of education had, as early as 1819–21, been unusually active for the good of common schools, among whom were Levi W. Leonard, D. D., Rev. Z. S. Barstow, Salma Hale, Daniel Bradford, and Joel Parker. Some years later a county school convention was held in Keene on the 4th of July, which was numerously attended, and addressed by Asahel H. Bennett, Esq., and an interesting letter was read from Dr. Ebenezer Morse of Walpole. The County Association was formed at a convention of teachers and others at Keene on the 18th Nov., 1836, with the design "to collect and diffuse such information as shall have a tendency to awaken a greater interest in common schools and improve the qualifications of teachers." Among its early presidents were Hon. Salma Hale, Rev. Mr. Barstow, Dr. L. W. Leonard, Rev. A. A. Livermore, and Dr. James Batcheller. Among the measures recommended at the first meeting were the appointment of a State School Commissioner by the Legislature, and the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary. It met annually for addresses and discussions until 1841, since which time its meetings have been semi-annual.

In answer to a call made by this Association, a State Convention was held at Concord, June 7th, 1843; S. E. Coues, Esq., presiding. The proceedings are of interest as showing the prevalent distrust in the efficacy of Associations and little faith in the virtues of simple legislation. The desired object was stated to be to take such measures as should create, throughout the State, an interest in common schools, and to effect this end the formation of a State Association

was proposed, an address to the people, and a petition to the Legislature for an act requiring reports from all the schools to the Secretary of State. The feeling of the meeting was nearly expressed by Rev. P. S. Ten Broeck, of Concord; "He thought we should not succeed with legislation. The good is to be done by ourselves. That a convention was preferable to an association. If we should not succeed, we should die more respectably as a convention than as an organized association. That meetings on the subject over the State were to accomplish the object." Nevertheless, a committee was appointed (consisting of Hon. Levi Woodbury, Rev. E. Worth, Rev. W. H. Moore, Chandler E. Potter, and Hon. Franklin Pierce,) to petition the Legislature; a second (consisting of C. J. Fox, Rev. N. Bouton, and Rev. A. A. Livermore,) to prepare an address; and in place of organizing an "Association," a series of annual "Conventions" was provided for, under the management of an Executive Committee, consisting of Messrs. J. Stevens, Jr., Rev. E. Worth, Rev. M. G. Thomas, Rev. W. H. Moore, Dr. S. Cummings, and Parker Noyes. It is uncertain how many of these proposed conventions were subsequently held. At the meeting at Concord two years afterwards, of which Salma Hale was president, very able and valuable essays were read by Prof. E. D. Sanborn upon the "*Examination of Teachers*," by Rev. Mr. Leonard upon the operation of the public schools of Dublin, Cheshire Co., and by Rev. W. H. Moore upon the legislative measures most requisite for the improvement of the common schools. Addresses were delivered by Hon. Levi Woodbury, Prof. Brooks, of Boston, Horace Mann, and William B. Fowle, discussions followed, the usual committee was appointed for memorializing the Legislature, and a Central Committee to make arrangements for the next Convention.

In April, 1845, the first "*Teachers' Institute*" was held, under the auspices of the Chester Co. Association, and was continued annually for several years, the officers being *ex officio* directors of the Institute. Previous to this, however, a similar Association had been formed in Hillsboro' County, organized in April, 1840, which proved a most active and effective body. Among its presidents were Rev. Abiel Abbott, D. D., Rev. Humphrey Moore, S. K. Livermore, Rev. S. T. Allen, and Rev. Samuel Lee. Its meetings were semi-annual. As a result of its discussion of the subject of Normal Schools, in 1845, the "*Merrimack Normal Institute*" was established at Reed's Ferry under the charge of Prof. William Russell. In October, 1846, a movement was also commenced in favor of a Teachers' Institute, which was shortly afterwards incorporated, and, in 1848, was

Yours

O. Faville

O. FAVILLE.

united with the Association into one organization. In response to repeated memorials from these Associations and Conventions, the Legislature of June, 1846, established the office of State Commissioner of Common Schools, and authorized towns to assess a special tax for the support of Institutes. In 1850 this office was abolished and that of County Commissioner substituted, which officer should take charge of the Teachers' Institutes. A conflict of authorities arose in Hillsboro' County between the Commissioner and the Association upon this point, resulting in the holding of two sets of Institutes, but the Legislature of 1851 revising the Statute and recognizing the Commissioner as its only agent, the Association withdrew from the field and in November, 1852, the organization was dissolved.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION.

THE STATE ASSOCIATION had its first suggestion in 1853 in the Manchester Association of Teachers, of which Jonathan Tenney, then principal of the High School in that city, was the originator. At the session of the County Institute in the following spring the subject was favorably received, and at an informal meeting of teachers, a convention for the purpose of effecting an organization was unanimously agreed upon and measures taken to elicit the opinion and secure the coöperation of teachers in other sections. Institutes and individual teachers responded in a similar spirit. A call was accordingly issued in May by a committee of which Jonathan Tenney was chairman, and the convention met at Concord on the 15th of June, 1854. It was largely attended by practical teachers from all parts of the state. Cyrus S. Richards was appointed President; H. E. Sawyer, B. F. Wallace, and G. S. Barnes, Vice Presidents; and Harry Brickett and M. C. Stebbins, Secretaries. A Constitution was reported by a committee consisting of Messrs. Tenney, Morse, Hoyt, T. Baldwin, and Stebbins, which, embracing the usual provisions, was adopted and the organization perfected by the election of the following officers:—Prof. John S. Woodman, *Pres.*; A. M. Payson, M. L. Morse, A. H. Bennett, J. R. Clark, J. N. Putnam, E. Knight, W. A. Webster, L. C. Chapin, E. T. Rowe, and D. A. Rowe, *Vice Pres.*; J. Tenney, and C. S. Richards, *Sec's.*; G. S. Barnes, *Treas.*; H. Brickett, B. F. Wallace, M. C. Stebbins, W. W. Bailey, T. O. Norris, J. G. Hoyt, and H. E. Sawyer, *Counselors*. Addresses were afterwards delivered by William H. Wells, on the "*Progress of Astronomy;*" by Benjamin Greenleaf, on "*School Order and Discipline;*" by Rev. Warren Burton, on the "*Relation*

of Parents to Teachers;" and by J. G. Hoyt, on "*Indications of Progress in Letters and Art.*"

In July, 1854, the Association was incorporated by Act of the State Legislature.

The FIRST ANNUAL SESSION was held at Nashua, Nov. 27th and 28th, 1854. Lectures, essays, and reports were delivered by Elihu T. Rowe, on "*Teachers' Institutes as they are and as they should be;*" by Rev. Daniel March, on "*How much and what kind of an Education does the State owe to its Citizens—or Citizens to themselves?*" by Prof. William Russell, on the "*Expediency of constituting the vocation of Teaching a distinct Profession;*" by Prof. E. D. Sanborn, on the question, "*Are our Colleges sufficiently progressive in the Subjects, Length, and Thoroughness, and Practical Character of their courses of Study?*" and by Rev. A. B. Muzzey, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools.*" A code of By-Laws was adopted, and committees were appointed to report upon Mr. Russell's plan for making teaching a more distinct profession; upon publishing a State Educational Journal; upon a certificate of membership; and upon a seal for the corporation. On motion of Mr. Tenney the following resolution was adopted:—

That we, the teachers of this Association, believe the Bible to be the corner-stone of all domestic, social, national and philanthropic virtue, and that we utterly deprecate and will steadfastly oppose any and all efforts of any man or class of men to keep it from our schools as a book of daily reading and reference; and we further believe, faithful, moral, in connection with thorough intellectual instruction, to be the highest function and most solemn duty of the teacher's office.

A meeting of the Association was held at Manchester, May 11th and 12th, 1855, in accordance with a vote of the previous session, for the purpose of acting upon the reports of committees and other subjects of a practical character. The following Reports were made:—by E. T. Quimby, upon the "*Seal of the Association;*" by W. H. Ward, upon a "*State Teachers' Journal;*" by C. S. Richards, upon "*Greater Uniformity in the Terms and Vacations of Academies and Colleges;*" by S. Upton, on "*State Appropriation in Aid of the Association;*" by H. E. Sawyer, on "*Certificates of Membership;*" by J. Tenney, on "*Town Supervision of Schools,*" and on "*Publishing the Lectures and Transactions;*" by Calvin Cutter, M. D., on "*State Supervision of Schools;*" by C. S. Richards, on a "*State Normal School;*" by I. H. Nutting, on "*Tuition in Academies and other Schools;*" by B. F. Wallace, on "*Sending Delegates to other Educational Associations;*" and by W. H. Ward, on "*Employing a State Agent.*"

These several reports were freely discussed and many of them were afterwards printed in the local papers and became the germ of much of the after educational progress in the State.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Great Falls, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1855. Lectures or addresses were delivered by Rev. Ezra E. Adams, on the "*Mission of the Scholar;*" by S. J. Pike, on the "*Democratic Element in School Government;*" by Jonathan Tenney, Secretary of the State Board, on a "*State Normal School;*" and by Dr. M. N. Root, a poem on the "*Teacher's Offering, its Incense, its Reward.*" The prominent subjects of discussion were Teachers' Institutes and a State Normal School, and it was voted that the "Normal School Committee" should prepare circulars and subscription papers for the purpose of obtaining money for the support of a Board of Instruction for the social training of teachers in the State, and Mr. Tenney, Chairman of the committee, was authorized to act as agent for the same object. Before the adjournment, over $1,200 were subscribed by the teachers present.

Hon. Jonathan Tenney, Secretary of the State Board of Education, was elected president.

The subject of a State Normal School was now attracting much attention. The Board of Education at a late meeting had passed a resolution urging upon the Legislature the establishment of such an institution, and the State Association now strongly favored the same action, and resolved that it would "raise and pay for the support of a competent Board of Instruction of such a Normal School, the sum of $2,500 per year, for the term of five years," provided the State Legislature would appropriate a like amount, the Board of Trustees of the school to be selected equally by the Board of Education and by the State Association. Measures were also taken for petitioning the Legislature to make provision for the erection of suitable buildings, &c. The State was now expending $6,000 a year upon its Teachers' Institutes, and the somewhat prevalent feeling that their efficiency did not correspond with the expense, aided the movement in favor of a Normal School. A bill for its establishment was passed unanimously by the House of Representatives at its next session, but was postponed by the Senate.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Wolfborough, August 12th and 13th, 1856. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Alpheus Crosby, of Boston, on "*A good Common Education;*" by M. C. Stebbins, on the "*Relations of the Press to our Schools;*" by Dr. Charles F. Elliot, on "*A Knowledge of Physical Laws essential to successful*

Teaching;" and by H. Brickett, on "*Reason and Memory.*" The report of the State Normal School Committee was made by Mr. Tenney. The Normal School Bill before the Legislature was warmly discussed and its provisions disapproved as not meeting the wants of education in the State. The subject of securing the influence of the Press to the cause of educational reform was also debated at length, and a committee appointed to prepare articles for publication in leading newspapers of the State. The proposition of Rev. W. L. Gage to commence the publication of a monthly Journal of Education was approved. A resolution was also adopted recommending the formation of County and Town Educational Associations.

Jonathan Tenney was reëlected president of the Association.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 4th to 6th, 1857. Addresses by H. Brickett, on the "*Motive Power of the School-room;*" by Rev. Lyman Whiting, on the "*Pleasures of School Keeping;*" by M. C. Stebbins, on "*Religious Instruction in the School-room;*" and by N. F. Carter, on the "*Kind of Parental Coöperation needed.*"

Most of the discussions and resolutions of this session related to the establishment of a State Journal of Education under the control of the Association. The "*New Hampshire Journal of Education*" which had been commenced by Rev. W. L. Gage in January, 1857, had failed to give satisfaction, and its publication was now assumed by the Association and Henry E. Sawyer of Concord was appointed Resident Editor, assisted by a Board of twelve Associate Editors.

Prof. E. D. Sanborn was elected president.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 3d to 5th, 1858. Addresses and essays by Prof. E. D. Sanborn, on "*Metempsychosis of Thought;*" by J. P. Newell, on "*Thoroughness in the School-room;*" by S. Hayward, on "*Text-books—their Uses and Abuses;*" by H. Brickett, on the "*Best Modes of Teaching Spelling;*" by E. Knight, on "*The Present an Age of Superficiality;*" by C. S. Richards on the "*Importance of more Condensation in our Systems of Education;*" by A. M. Payson, on the "*Causes of Failure in School Government;*" and by G. W. Gardner, on the "*Relative Importance of the Ancient Classics and Scientific Studies in American Education.*"

Discussions were held upon "*Methods of Analysis in English Grammar;*" "*School Examinations;*" and upon a "*Systematic Course of Education in our Academies.*" Resolutions were adopted

respecting the more efficient organization of teachers as a distinct profession, and a committee was appointed to petition the Legislature for aid in behalf of the Association.

Prof. E. D. Sanborn was reëlected president.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, August 2d to 4th, 1859. Addresses and Essays, by Rev. W. T. Savage, on "*The Family, the Church, the State—their individual and combined Province in educating the Race;*" by E. T. Quimby, on the "*Danger of rendering too much Assistance in teaching;*" by H. L. Boltwood, on the "*Importance of more thorough Study of English Literature;*" and by H. E. Sawyer, on the "*Duty and Right of Community to educate the Young.*"

The principal discussion was upon the subject of school superintendence, favoring the appointment of a State Superintendent in addition to the Board of County Commissioners. The merits of the English and Continental systems of Greek and Latin Orthoepy were debated, the prospects of the State Journal reported upon, and a resolution passed respecting obtaining State aid for the Association.

David Crosby of Nashua was elected president.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Manchester, July 31st to Aug. 2d, 1860. Lectures or Essays were delivered by S. Hayward, on "*School Discipline;*" by Hon. J. D. Philbrick, of Boston, on the "*Teachers' Duty of Self-Improvement;*" by E. T. Rowe, on the "*Teachers' Object and his Means of obtaining it;*" by Miss Mary A. Currier, on "*How to become worth more as Teachers;*" and by Miss M. J. Emerson, on "*The Disciplinary and the Ornamental in Female Education.*"

Discussions were held upon "*Latin and Greek Orthoepy;*" upon the "*Best Means of interesting Children in Primary Schools;*" upon "*Admitting both Sexes to our Colleges;*" and upon "*How far we should adhere to a definite Course of Study.*" Resolutions were also adopted disavowing all responsibility for the contents and character of the first Volume of the School Journal. At this meeting a "*Teachers' League*" was formed in consequence of a resolution recommending that, for the sake of maintaining healthy and strict discipline in the academies of the State, the fact of suspension, separation, or expulsion of any student should constitute a sufficient reason why he should not be received into any other school till such difficulty should be satisfactorily settled and duly certified. In this action were united the principals of many of the Academies of the State as well as of several in Vermont and Massachusetts.

David Crosby was reëlected president.

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, Nov. 19th to 21st, 1861. Lectures or essays were delivered, by Benjamin Warner, on "*School Perversions;*" by S. Haywood, a report on "*School Text-books;*" by Miss Lois A. Sartwell, on the "*True Teacher;*" by Rev. B. G. Northrop, of Massachuetts, on the "*Motives to be urged on Pupils;*" by M. A. Cartland, on the "*Best Method of Teaching the English Language;*" by Prof. C. A. Aiken, on "*Scholarship and Patriotism;*" by N. F. Carter, on the "*Ministry of Antagonism;*" and by D. H. Sanborn, on the "*Method of Teaching Geography.*"

The action of the previous Legislature in abolishing Teachers' Institutes was discussed, as also the subjects of "*Text-books,*" "*School Gymnastics,*" "*Spelling,*" "*School Government,*" and the "*School Journal.*" Resolves were passed as a tribute to the memory of Paltiah Brown of Concord, and greetings were interchanged, by telegraph, with the Massachusetts State Association, then in session.

H. E. Sawyer, of Concord, was elected president, and Jonathan Tenney, resident editor of the Journal of Education.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Nashua, Nov. 19th to 21st, 1862. Addresses or essays were presented by H. E. Sawyer, on "*Historical Memorials of the N. H. State Teachers' Association;*" by Rev. Elias Nason, on the "*Points which constitute the Accomplishments, Character, Power, and Perfection of the true Lady;*" by A. L. Gerrish, on the "*Close of School;*" by S. Hayward, on "*Literary Culture;*" and by G. J. Judkins, on the "*Moral Qualifications of Teachers.*"

Discussions were held upon the merits of the new Legislative Bill providing for a system of public school supervision; upon the different methods of teaching geography, penmanship, declamation, and reading; upon the relative prominence to be given by the teacher to mental discipline and the communication of knowledge as the objects of his labors; upon the duties of parents to teachers; the necessity of changes in the present preparatory course for admission to college; and upon school gymnastics and object lessons. Class exercises were conducted by W. A. Hodgden in illustration of methods of teaching vocal music; by J. W. Webster, in school gymnastics; and by H. E. Sawyer, in object teaching. A committee was again appointed to petition for State aid in behalf of the objects of the Association.

Henry E. Sawyer was reëlected president.

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Manchester, Nov. 18th to 20th, 1863. Lectures and essays, by Rev. J. H. McCarty, of Providence, on the "*Lights and Shades of the School-room;*" by C. S. Richards, on the "*Progressive Teacher;*" by E. Knight, on "*Teaching Arithmetic,*" with illustrations; by S. G. Haley, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools;*" by A. Wood, on "*Veracity and the Methods of teaching it;*" by E. T. Rowe, on the "*Responsibility of the Teacher;*" and by J. Tenney, on the "*Life and Lessons of Moses A. Cartland.*"

Discussions were held upon the methods of teaching history, orthography, and penmanship; upon Greek and Latin pronunciation; upon rendering assistance to pupils; the harmonious development of a child's faculties; and the proper answer to the pupil's question, What shall I study? After discussion, also, it was resolved that the teacher's authority over his pupils rightfully extends, in the opinion of the Association, from the time they leave home until they reach home on their return; that "free return tickets" should be given only to enrolled members; that the highest interests of the State demand a wise, generous, and progressive policy on the part of the Legislature in regard to public schools and all other institutions of learning, and that it is the duty of teachers on all proper occasions to advocate and urge the adoption of such a policy, and to labor to secure the election to the Legislature of men who are honestly and boldly in favor of the immediate adoption of such a policy.

Resolutions were passed in memory of the lives and services of M. A. Cartland, John N. Putnam, and Phineas Nichols, members deceased since the previous meeting. A committee was also appointed to solicit State aid. The Association, during the session, attended by invitation the Public School Festival, and visited the Reform School.

Cyrus S. Richards, of Meriden, was elected president.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Fisherville, Nov. 21st to 23d, 1864. Addresses, &c., were delivered by Rev. W. L. Gaylord, on "*The two Expeditions to Roanoke Island;*" by S. W. Mason, of Boston, on "*Gymnastics in our Common Schools;*" by C. C. Coffin, of Massachusetts, on the "*New Heroic Age;*" by E. T. Rowe, on "*What should be aimed at in our Common Schools;*" by Rev. D. E. Adams, on the "*Legitimate Demands of Education on the Suffrages of the State;*" by Rev. C. A. Downs, on "*Physical Geography;*" and by J. Tenney, on "*Some Improvements in Educational Machinery.*"

Discussions were held upon methods of teaching reading and declamation; upon what studies are most practical; and upon the best means of conducting recitations, of exciting the interest of parents in the school, and of developing the better traits of the pupil. It was resolved that the pronunciation of Greek and Latin should be in accordance with the principles of our own language, rather than any foreign one. The next session, of November, 1865, was appointed to be held at Keene.

In connection with the sessions of the Association it has been customary to have an introductory address by the president, and to conclude with a social levee. It has also been usual to appoint a committee upon "teachers' places," to aid those disengaged in procuring schools.

The "*New Hampshire Journal of Education*," whose publication was assumed by the Association in August, 1857, was continued until the close of the sixth volume in December, 1862, when the difficulties of the times made a temporary suspension advisable.

The officers of the Association for 1865 are as follows:—

Cyrus S. Richards, *Pres.*; D. Crosby, E. T. Rowe, C. A. Aiken, G. G. Harriman, W. L. Gaylord, A. M. Payson, C. Tabor, S. Hayward, S. W. Buffum, and J. E. Vose; *Vice-Pres.*; W. W. Colburn and Thomas Tash, *Sec's.*; J. E. Ayers, *Treas.*; J. Tenney, A. Wood, E. T. Quimby, H. E. Sawyer, F. G. Clarke, H. C. Bullard, and R. C. Stanley, *Counselors.*

PRESIDENTS OF NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

JOHN S. WOODMAN.

JOHN SMITH WOODMAN was born in Durham, Strafford county, New Hampshire, on the 6th September, 1819. The training and influence of his parents, both remarkable for their intelligence, correct judgment, and good taste, had their legitimate effect in the formation of his character. He was carefully instructed in habits of diligence, order, and economy, and taught to follow with enthusiasm and to excel in whatever was undertaken. In connection with work upon the farm, he attended the usual district-school, and from the age of fourteen to eighteen, at intervals, the academy of South Berwick, Maine, where he fitted for college, encouraged and guided especially by its principal, Stephen Chase, (afterwards professor)—a man of the purest character, of the greatest simplicity and worth, and of extraordinary intellectual ability. Having graduated at Dartmouth in 1842, he went to Charleston, S. C., where he remained for four years, engaged in the study of law and teaching the higher branches some hours daily, in several of the private schools of the city. The following eighteen months were spent in travel in Europe, and after his return, he completed his professional studies at Dover, N. H., and was admitted to the bar in 1848. In 1851 he accepted the professorship of Mathematics in Dartmouth College, but in 1855 resigned, and resumed the practice of law in Boston until the following year, when the professorship of Civil Engineering in the Chandler Scientific Department of Dartmouth College was offered to him, which position he still retains.

Prof. Woodman was School Commissioner of Strafford county for 1850, and Secretary of the first Board of Education, preparing the first Annual Report, in 1851. For the next three years he was School Commissioner for Grafton county and as such conducted frequent sessions of the County Teachers' Institute. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association at its organization in 1854, and in the following year. His articles and addresses to the citizens of the State upon educational topics have been largely influential; the judicious management of the Chandler Scientific Department is due to a great extent to his careful advice; and yet perhaps his most effective service may have been found in the daily, quiet, constant labors of the recitation room.

JONATHAN TENNEY.

JONATHAN TENNEY was born at Corinth, Orange County, Vt., Sept. 14th, 1817. During his boyhood a diligent student in the district-schools and a busy reader at home, at the age of sixteen he entered Newbury Seminary, Vt., where he continued until his entrance to Dartmouth College in 1839, with the exception of one term at Bradford Academy, and intervals of farm labor and teaching, and a short apprenticeship in a printing office, at Concord, N. H. His labors as a

teacher commenced in 1834, and were continued during the winters until his graduation—the last four schools being in large villages and having an attendance of from seventy-five to a hundred in a single room. After graduating in 1843, he taught for a short time the Academy at Hebron, N. H., but resigned in order to establish a High School at Newbury, which was successfully organized under his care. He was then for five years principal of Pembroke Academy, which attained, under his management, a high reputation and popularity. A portion of his time was here devoted to the study of law, but acquiring a disrelish for legal practice, he adopted teaching as his profession and, from this time, lost no opportunity to extend his acquaintance with the best schools and educators, their principles and methods. A desire for wider experience, a spirit of independent and progressive action, and an unwillingness to become settled in any one routine of thought and action, have induced a frequent change of position by voluntary resignations, and have prompted the undertaking of much collateral work. He has had charge of a Grammar School at Lawrence, Mass., (for which he succeeded in effecting the erection of a new edifice,) the Public High School at Pittsfield, Mass., and the High School at Manchester, N. H., and for the last eight years or more has been sole proprietor and principal of the Elmwood Literary Institute at Boscawen, N. H.

While in Massachusetts he was an active member of the State, County, and City Teachers' Associations, a Vice-President of the State Association, and an associate editor of the Massachusetts Teacher. In 1854 he undertook, with great success, the editorship of an independent weekly newspaper. From 1855 to 1857 inclusive he was at the same time Chairman of the School Committee of Manchester, Commissioner of Schools for Hillsborough county, and Secretary of the State Board of Education. His reports in these several capacities were full and able, and models of their kind. During this time he introduced various reforms in the city schools, visited many schools of the State, conducted Teachers' Institutes, and lectured and taught upon various subjects in all parts of the State. In 1854 he was the originator of the State Teachers' Association, and has always been one of its most active and practical workers and supporters. He was elected its President in 1855 and '56, and was, after January, 1862, the resident editor of the New Hampshire Journal of Education. He prepared and published in 1853 the first catalogue of teachers and schools that had appeared for any State, and has contributed largely to the educational and other statistics of the country. He is now (1865) Commissioner of Schools for Merrimack county, and member of the State Board of Education.

PROF. E. D. SANBORN.

Edwin David Sanborn was born at Gilmanton, N. H., May 14th, 1808. Till sixteen years of age he worked upon the farm, attending district-school in winter, and afterwards fitted himself for college at Hampton and Gilmanton Academies, principally the latter, under the excellent instructions of John L. Parkhurst—his studies still alternating with farm-work and teaching. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1832, and the two following years were spent in charge of the academy at Topsfield, Mass., and then of Gilmanton Academy, N. H. Declining a tutorship at Dartmouth, he now commenced the study of law; but soon found it so distasteful that it was abandoned, and in the autumn of 1834, he entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, employing a portion of his time

Yours truly
Henry E. Sawyer

ENGLAND FOR BARNARD'S AM JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

in instruction in Phillips Academy. In 1835, the invitation to Dartmou'

,
at
or

orty
For
ls and
ubjects.
r in the
e Ameri-
Teachers'
ears, Jus-
ate Legis-
tion.

m the age
e ordinary
r, and then,
er. In this
, Pembroke,
and his de-
teaching in
When nine-
his own and
over the hills,
outh College in
, and had thence-
e had tripled his
all been spent in
whole time to the
calities, until April,
which position he still
the "New Hampshire
of the State Teachers'
and 1860.

.. H., July 14th, 1826. He
niker for some years, was a
ted his preparatory course in
1851. He commenced teach-
during the winters at Manches-
ive State. After graduation he,
my at Francestown, and after a short in-
ipal of the Public High School at Great
, when he took charge of the Concord High

Yours
He.

in instruction in Phillips Academy. In 1835, the invitation to Dartmouth was repeated and accepted. He was soon after elected professor of the Latin Language and Literature, which office he held until 1859, when he accepted the professorship of Classical Literature and History in Washington University at St. Louis. In February, 1864, he returned to Dartmouth as Evans Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory.

Prof. Sanborn's experience in teaching thus extends through more than forty years and has been associated with nearly all grades of schools and pupils. For twenty-five years he has been a frequent contributor to the public journals and leading reviews, of articles upon social, moral, educational, and religious subjects. He was many years engaged, and among the first, as teacher and lecturer in the Teachers' Institutes of the State; has delivered several lectures before the American Institute of Instruction, and was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1857 and 1858. He has also been for nearly twenty years, Justice of the Peace and Quorum; was for two years a member of the State Legislature, and was elected in 1850 delegate to the Constitutional Convention.

DAVID CROSBY.

David Crosby was born in Hebron, N. H., Sept. 1st, 1807. From the age of six years till nineteen his education was mainly acquired at the ordinary schools, attending in his own district eight or ten weeks each winter, and then, occasionally, in some neighboring district for two to six weeks longer. In this time he also attended three Fall terms at the academies of Boscawen, Pembroke, and Meriden. It was his earliest ambition to become a teacher, and his determination to gain an education, and he had already commenced teaching in the winter of 1824–5, for nine dollars a month and board around. When nineteen years of age he received his "time," and with one shilling of his own and a dollar borrowed from his father, set out upon foot thirty miles over the hills, carrying all his possessions with him. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1833, and paying all his debts had three shillings remaining, and had thenceforth the satisfaction of being able to tell his pupils that he had tripled his money in going through college. His winters thus far had all been spent in teaching district-schools. After graduation he devoted his whole time to the same occupation, principally in academies, in different localities, until April, 1836, when he became principal of Nashua Academy, in which position he still remains. Mr. Crosby has contributed various articles to the "New Hampshire Journal of Education," and has been an active member of the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1859 and 1860.

HENRY E. SAWYER.

Henry Edmund Sawyer was born at Warner, N. H., July 14th, 1826. He attended the district-schools and academy at Henniker for some years, was a short time in the academy at Meriden, and completed his preparatory course in Manchester, graduating in Dartmouth College in 1851. He commenced teaching at Goffstown in 1844, and afterwards taught during the winters at Manchester, Amherst, Milford, and Acworth, in his native State. After graduation he, for two years, had charge of the academy at Francestown, and after a short interval at Henniker, was elected principal of the Public High School at Great Falls, where he remained until 1857, when he took charge of the Concord High

School. He resigned this position in 1865 and removed to Middletown, Conn., where he had been appointed principal of the High School.

Mr. Sawyer has labored in Teachers' Institutes, and was elected President of the State Association in 1861 and 1862, of which he was, from its establishment, a most active and prominent member, never absent from its meetings, always prompt in the performance of assigned duties. He was Superintendent of the schools of Concord for a year, and was for four years, 1858–61, the efficient editor of the "New Hampshire Journal of Education." During his residence in Concord and mainly through his agency, the public schools were raised to their present high position; new school buildings were erected, of which he furnished the designs; order and system were every where inaugurated, and faithfulness and earnestness, here as in every other position, marked his administration.

CYRUS S. RICHARDS.

Cyrus Smith Richards, born at Hartford, Vt., in 1808, had but limited advantages for acquiring even a common school education; yet, by an early acquired habit of self-culture and by employing his leisure in diligent study, had, at the age of fifteen, thoroughly mastered the branches of higher arithmetic and English grammar. At the age of twenty, with the design of preparing for the ministry, he entered Kimball Union Academy, and graduated at Dartmouth College in 1835. In the meantime teaching became with him almost a passion and success attended his efforts in the common schools in which he was employed. During his Senior year he was engaged to give instruction in Kimball Union Academy. Immediately after graduation he was elected principal, and becoming convinced that the school was his sphere of usefulness, he has since that period and up to the present time (1865) devoted all his energies most untiringly and exclusively to the interests of that institution and the endeavor to make it second to no other school of the kind in New England. He has secured an unbroken course both in the English and classical departments, has maintained strict and rigid discipline, and has greatly elevated the standard of attainment and scholarship. The average attendance of pupils during the last twenty years has been over two hundred, while the number fitted for college has averaged over twenty-five annually for more than twenty-five years. In 1859 Mr. Richards published an introductory work entitled "*Latin Lessons and Tables*," which is original in its design and has been quite extensively adopted and highly approved. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1863 and 1864.

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THOUGH by Acts of Congress of 1804 and 1816 provision had been made for a University and schools by the reservation of the sixteenth section and other lands, and though the first Constitution of 1816 required that the General Assembly should establish a system of free schools "as soon as circumstances would permit," yet nothing was done for many years for their establishment or improvement. The University was, indeed, established at Bloomington in 1827, and an Act was passed in 1831, revised and modified in February, 1833, "incorporating congressional townships and providing for public schools therein," but the degree of popular ignorance and destitution of public advantages continued deplorable. This was due in a great measure to the sparseness and heterogeneous character of the population, with a consequent want of sympathy and union of feeling and concert of action. In 1833 an attempt was made to remove this want by the formation of an "*Association for the Improvement of Common Schools in Indiana*," which was organized in March,* and immediately took measures to gather intelligence respecting the actual condition of the country schools. The Board of Directors, finding that the want of competent, respectable and moral teachers was the greatest difficulty to be overcome, determined upon the establishment of a Manual Labor Seminary expressly to prepare young men for teaching, and made arrangements for its being put in speedy operation. A semi-annual meeting of the Society was held at Madison on the 3d of September, 1833, when report was made by the Secretary† and the proceedings of the

* The officers of this Society were as follows:—Hon. William Hendricks, *Pres.*; Hon. Jesse L. Holman, Hon. S. C. Stevens, James Blythe, D. D., Dr. E. F. Pabody, Rev. J. M. Dickey, Hon. Benjamin Park, Hon. M. C. Eggleston, John Matthews, D. D., A. Wylie, D. D., *Vice Presidents*; J. Sullivan, J. W. Cunningham, J. H. Harney, M. H. Wilder, Dr. W. B. Goodhue, Hon. John Sering, Rev. R. Ransom, A. Andrews, C. P. J. Arion, M. A. H. Niles, Hon. Williamson Dunn, James Goodhue, Hon. John Dumont, Rev. S. Gregg, Rev. J. T. Wells, Jesse Marity, *Directors*; Rev. J. U. Parsons, *Cor. Sec.*; Rev. J. H. Johnston, *Rec. Sec.*; Dr. John Howes, *Treas.*

† In nine townships from which a full tabular report was returned, containing about 3,000 children between 5 and 15 years of age, only 919 attended school in 1832, the larger part for three months only. But one in six was able to read; one in nine to write; one in sixteen had studied

directors were approved. The next annual meeting of the Society was appointed to be held at Indianapolis, in December, 1833, during the session of the Legislature, from whom an act incorporating the Society was obtained. The Teachers' Seminary, thus early instituted, was located near the town of Madison and was opened in March, 1834, with five scholars, increased during the session to thirty-six. The plan of the institution embraced, first, a distinct provision for the qualification of school teachers and, secondarily, a scientific course adapted to the wants of practical life. But it was sustained by no permanent fund, its principal was dependent upon the avails of tuition for his support, and its success was, moreover, made conditional upon the practicability of the Manual Labor system. It is not surprising, therefore, that no further record appears of its operations, and the Association appears to have been suspended at the same time.

The next prominent movement was made in January, 1837, when a Convention of the friends of education was held at Indianapolis and an address was delivered before the Legislature upon the subject of common school education by Andrew Wylie, D. D., president of the State University. This address was published and circulated by order of the State Senate. At the same time the publication of the "*Common School Advocate*" was commenced at Indianapolis by Mr. W. Twining, but was soon discontinued. A general convention was again held at Richmond in May, 1841, continuing in session four days. Its proceedings were published in pamphlet form. County Associations were recommended, and shortly afterwards a county convention was called and the Wayne County Educational Association formed, which held several meetings. A still earlier society had, however, been organized at Richmond in 1838, which for eighteen months held its quarterly meetings. James M. Poe and Ebenezer Bishop were prominent members. Though some improvements were made in the school law, it still remained to a great extent inadequate and inefficient, and no general awaking among the people in its behalf was perceptible until 1846. An ably edited semi-monthly paper, the "*Common School Advocate*," was then commenced by H. F. West and did very important service. Local associations were formed in Wayne, Marion, Hendricks and other counties, Teachers' Institutes were established, addresses

---

arithmetic; one in a hundred, geography; and one in one hundred and forty-five, grammar. In the counties of Washington, Jackson, and Lawrence, with a population of 27,000, only 1,521 attended school in summer, and 2,433 in winter. Moreover, many of the schools in operation were reported as of no benefit to the cause of education.

were delivered by Gov. William Slade of Vermont in the interest of the Board of National Popular Education, and the progressive movements in neighboring states had also their influence. The Legislature which met in December, 1846, made some additional amendments to the school law, and with a view to more decisive and satisfactory action, in response to the suggestion and earnest request of Mr. West, issued a call for a convention of the friends of common school education at Indianapolis on the 26th of May, 1847. About 350 delegates were in attendance; Hon. Isaac Blackford presided; a series of resolutions were passed, after much discussion, expressing the opinions of the convention; a committee, consisting of Messrs. Calvin Fletcher, O. H. Smith, and A. Kinney, were appointed to draft a school law in accordance with the resolutions, and urge its adoption by the Legislature; and a second committee were appointed to prepare an address to the people upon the subject of Common Schools. Provision was also made for a second meeting of the convention in December following and the formation of a "*State Education Society.*" The several committees performed their duties, but the bill failed of a passage by the Legislature, and no record is found of the proposed State Society. The next Legislature, of 1848-9, however, passed a Free School Law which went partially into operation, but under the revised Constitution of 1850, an act was approved, 14th June, 1852, "for a general and uniform system of common schools and school libraries," which provided a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, consolidated the School Funds, and inaugurated a more perfect system of common schools, which was again revised in March, 1855.

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

County Associations and Institutes had already been the source of much improvement to both teachers and schools in various parts of the State, but no efficient State Society had yet been formed, though the "*Northern Indiana Teachers' Institute,*" organized in 1850, had done much for the cause in the northern part of the State. Under its auspices the "*American Educationist*" was commenced in January, 1852, by Albert D. Wright, as editor, but was soon discontinued. In the fall of 1854 a circular signed by a few of the leading teachers was issued, calling for a meeting at Indianapolis for the purpose of organizing a State Teachers' Association. Nearly a hundred teachers accordingly met on the 25th of December, a constitution was prepared by Messrs. E. P. Cole, Caleb Mills, and G. W. Hoss, which was adopted and the organization completed

by the election of the prescribed officers. William M. Daily, D. D., of the State University, was made president. The character and action of the convention is thus referred to by the State Superintendent, Caleb Mills, in his Third Annual Report to the General Assembly :—

"The number and character of the teachers present, their professional antecedents, the zeal and spirit manifested, the exercises connected with its inauguration, the discussions of the occasion, the developed policy and determined purpose of its leading minds to employ the press in the elevation of their profession and the awakening of the public mind on the subject of popular education, are pledges of the earnest reliable character of the enterprise. The interest felt in the perfecting of our school law found expression in several resolutions, respectfully commending to the favorable consideration of the Legislature certain important features, regarded as fundamental and essential to a successful issue. The action of the Association in reference to an Educational Periodical justifies the expectation and authorizes the belief that the next Legislature will find such a laborer in the field, commending himself and his mission to their kind regards."

Second Annual Session.—At Madison, Dec. 25th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by Caleb Mills, State Superintendent, upon the "*Teachers' Mission;*" and by the President, Dr. W. M. Daily. Reports were received from A. D. Filmore, on "*Vocal Music in Schools;*" from W. D. Henkle, in favor of the use of the Phonetic Method of Spelling in primary schools, which after discussion was referred to a select committee; from G. A. Chase, on "*English Grammar;*" from G. B. Stone, on the "*Study and Teaching of Geography;*" from J. Hurty, on "*Teaching Arithmetic,*" with practical class illustrations; and from Prof. Mills, upon the general condition of education throughout the State. A Board of Editors was appointed and arrangements made for the immediate commencement of the publication of the "*Indiana School Journal,*" and a committee was appointed to report a memorial to the Legislature in behalf of Teachers' Institutes and Normal Schools. Charles Barnes was elected president.

A regular semi-annual session was held at Lafayette, August 19th, 1856. Addresses were made by the President, on "*Colleges and their relation to Public Schools;*" and by Dr. R. F. Brown, on "*Physical Education, or Relation of the Outer and Inner Man.*" Discussions were held upon the subject of the President's address; on "*Free Schools;*" upon a report by J. Hurty, on the "*Duties of the Association in regard to Educational Progress,*" and the appointment of a State Agent; upon an "*Increase of the State Tax for School Purposes;*" and upon "*Teachers' Institutes.*" A report upon the latter subject was read by J. A. McLane. The meeting was an interesting one. The subject of the School Journal called out con-

siderable feeling, and E. P. Cole was appointed an agent to increase its circulation.

THIRD ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1856. Prof. W. C. Larrabee, State Superintendent, gave an address upon "*Education in Indiana;*" Prof. E. C. Bishop, on "*Phonetics;*" Dr. Hobbs, on "*Physical Education;*" and Prof. White, of Wabash College, on "*Religion and Education.*" The principal discussions were upon the subject of proposed memorials to the Legislature, in connection with reports by Charles Barnes, on "*Normal Schools;*" and by J. Hurty, on "*Increased School Taxes and School Terms, County Institutes, and Aid to the School Journal,*" and by B. C. Hobbs, on "*District Superintendents.*" An able report was presented by Prof. W. Twining on the "*Organization of State Universities,*" and also from Mr. Dillon on the "*History of Common Schools in Indiana.*" Rev. James G. May, of New Albany, was elected president.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Richmond, August 25th, 1857, and was very largely attended. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Woman's Mission;*" by E. P. Cole, on the "*Educational Condition and Prospects of the State;*" and by Dr. Longshore, on the "*Medical Education of Woman;*" with reports by J. Hurty, State Agent; and by Mr. Hollingsworth, on "*Improvements in the Method of School Government;*" followed by discussions. The subject of "*Normal Schools*" was again discussed, as also that of "*Woman's Wages,*" and the expediency of farther memorials to the Legislature. The State Agent reported that County Associations had been formed, old organizations revived, and Teachers' Institutes held in a large number of counties, but the condition of education throughout the State was darkly painted. A committee was again appointed to report upon the school system, with reference to an appeal to the Legislature.

FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1857. Addresses were given by Rev. Dr. Daily, on the "*Study of Language;*" by Hon. G. W. Julian, on the "*Necessity of a Political Education;*" and by Prof. J. D. Butler, on the "*Mission of Colleges.*" A large portion of the time of the meeting was occupied in discussing the nomination of a State Superintendent and the necessity of Normal Schools,—action upon the latter subject resulting in measures for holding Teachers' Institutes and for influencing public sentiment in favor of Normal Schools, and the appointment of a committee to receive proposals from different towns for the location of such schools. Barnabas C. Hobbs was elected President.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Terre Haute, July 20th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by the President; by John Young, on "*Mental Development;*" by Hon. R. W. Thompson, on the "*Powers and Defects of the School Law;*" and by J. G. Wilson, on the "*Bible—the Teacher's Manual and the Scholar's Chart.*" Reports were read by J. G. Craven, on the "*Educational Wants of the Colored People;*" by the District Committees on Teacher's Institutes; and by E. P. Cole, on the "*Defects of the School Law.*" The law under which the city and town schools were organized having recently been declared unconstitutional, in consequence of which many had been closed, committees were appointed to collect information and statistics in regard to such schools, to circulate petitions, and use means to influence the Legislature to increase the school-tax and authorize townships and cities to tax themselves for school purposes.

Fifth Annual Session.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 27th, 1858. Addresses by Prof. A. H. Lattimore, on the "*Historical Origin of Universities and Colleges;*" by Dr. Zaccheus Test, on the "*Character of Socrates as a Teacher;*" and by Prof. Shepardson, on the "*Personal Influence of the Teacher.*" The District Committees appointed to conduct Institutes, reported that they had held Institutes in but two Congressional Districts, that there was a great lack of system in the manner of conducting them, and that the course adopted of going through a mere school drill was useless. The information gained respecting the results of the decision of the courts upon town and city schools, went to show that the decision of the court was less at fault than the inefficiency of the law or the lack of interest among the people. A memorial to the Legislature was reported which after much discussion was adopted. Prof. Caleb Mills was elected president.

The semi-annual meeting was held at Fort Wayne, August 23d, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Dr. Myers on "*Human Progress;*" and by Hon. Hugh McCulloch, on "*Education in the United States.*" The prominent subject before the Association was the proposed convention for the amendment of the State Constitution, which was warmly debated. An able report was read by O. Phelps in favor of "*Prizes in Schools,*" followed by discussions upon the same subject, and also upon the use of the language of the textbook in recitations. W. D. Henkle having resigned the editorship of the "*School Journal,*" Mr. O. Phelps was appointed to the place, and Daniel Kirkwood as Mathematical Editor. Under the succes-

sive charge of George B. Stone and W. D. Henkle, the Journal had been now for four years conducted with ability and encouraging success.

SIXTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 26th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by the president, Caleb Mills; and by Dr. Lathrop, on "*Education, and Woman's Rights in the Matter.*" An active discussion arose in regard to what should be done in behalf of the School System, in connection with which was a report by Messrs. G. W. Hoss, Caleb Mills, and T. Hielscher, and a committee was appointed to carry out the measures proposed—to arouse action among the teachers, and by County Associations, County Normal Institutes, and frequent other educational meetings to excite a popular demand for wholesome and liberal legislation in behalf of schools. The Executive Committee were instructed to collect statistical information respecting the educational institutions of the State; the "*School Journal*" was placed in the hands of Mr. O. Phelps as permanent editor and proprietor; and the semi-annual meeting was discontinued. E. P. Cole was elected president.

SEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 26th, 1860. Addresses by the president on the "*Moral Responsibility of the Teacher;*" by J. Baldwin, on "*Normal Schools;*" and by Rev. Dr. Hall, on "*Moral Education.*" An able report was given by G. W. Hoss, on "*Normal Schools;*" also by B. C. Hobbs on "*School Discipline;*" by J. G. May, on the "*Office of School Directors;*" and J. McKee, on "*Vocal Music;*" followed by discussions. Messrs. G. A. Irvine, G. W. Hoss, and Cyrus Nutt were appointed to coöperate with Caleb Mills and S. L. Ruggs, the retiring and newly elected State Superintendents, in representing the educational interests of the State to the next Legislature. The chief measures discussed and recommended were the levy of a two-mill school tax, the establishment of a Normal School in connection with the State University, and an amendment to the State Constitution, permitting local taxation for school purposes. Reports were made upon Teachers' Institutes, and the best method of conducting a monthly Teachers' Association was debated. It was stated that the Wayne County Association had held monthly meetings with a single failure for six years. As usual, a teacher was appointed in each Congressional District to have charge of Institutes during the year. G. A. Irvine was elected president. Amendments were made to the School Law by the following Legislature, but the changes chiefly desired by the Association were not effected.

EIGHTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 25th, 1861. This meeting was very largely attended and very ably conducted. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Nature's Plan of Teaching;*" by G. H. Stowits, of New York, on "*Mental Delta,*" and on "*Object Teaching;*" and by G. W. Hoss, on "*Educational Progress in the State.*" Essays were read by J. B. Mallett, on "*Reading and the Best Methods of Teaching it;*" by Mary A. Vater on the "*Qualifications of the Primary Teacher;*" and by W. H. Venable, on "*Moral Instruction in Schools.*" Reports were received from members of the committee appointed to conduct Institutes, and the committee was reappointed. Superintendent Fletcher also made a report upon "*School Architecture.*" A special discussion was held upon the subject of the "*Duties of County Examiners,*" and Dr. Lewis' New Gymnastics were illustrated by exercises under the direction of R. B. Huff. The conduct of the School Journal was also made the subject of a report and discussion. Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D. D., of the State University, was elected President.

NINTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 29th, 1862. Addresses were delivered by the president, Rev. Cyrus Nutt, D. D., on the "*Importance of inculcating right principles of Action;*" by W. H. Wells, of Chicago, on "*Orthography and its Representation,*" and upon the "*Philosophy of Teaching;*" and by Mr. Venable on "*Phonetic Teaching;*" which were followed by animated discussions. Papers were read by E. J. Rice, on the "*Duty of Teachers in regard to the Health of their Pupils;*" by Hiram Hadley, on the "*Visiting Duties of Examiners;*" also giving rise to debates. Reports of the Institute Committees were received but from four districts. The subject of the pending constitutional amendment, authorizing special local taxes for school purposes, and the best means of securing its adoption by the people, was brought up and resulted in the appointment of Messrs. G. W. Hoss, B. T. Hoyt, and Superintendent Rugg as a committee to prepare an address to the people, and Messrs. S. T. Bowen, T. J. Vater, and J. G. May to coöperate with the Superintendent in securing the passage of the amendment by the Legislature. A resolution was also adopted recommending the appointment of practical educational men to the office of County Examiner by the County Commissioners, whenever practicable. Prof. A. R. Benton was elected president. The proposed constitutional amendment afterwards failed in the House.

TENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Indianapolis, Dec. 28th, 1863. Addresses were delivered by the president, on "*Self Culture;*"

and by Prof. H. N. Hailman, of Louisville, on "*Object Teaching;*" and papers were read by G. P. Brown, on the "*Best Method of teaching Definitions;*" and by G. W. Hoss, on the "*Demand for teaching the Principles of our Government in Common Schools;*" followed by discussions upon the same subjects. Resolutions were passed against the use of tobacco by teachers, and recommending the creation of a State Board of Examiners by the Legislature, and the question of the method of appointment of teachers was discussed. Prof. B. F. Hoyt was elected president.

The attendance at the session of the Association had for three years been rapidly increasing and now numbered two hundred and fifty. Reports showed that Institutes and organized efforts upon the part of teachers were progressing, and that the year had been one of material and solid advancement. A "Normal School Society" had been formed, holding "Normal Schools" in different localities and assisted by many of the best educators of the State. During the session of the Association, a Convention of School Examiners was held at Indianapolis, and the two bodies met in joint convention.

Eleventh Annual Meeting.—At Richmond, Dec. 26th, 1864. Addresses by Hon. John Yaryan, on "*Education;*" by Prof. B. F. Hoyt, the president, on the "*Future of American Literature;*" by Hon. E. E. White of Ohio, on the "*Comparative value of Discipline and Facts;*" by G. W. Hoss, on the "*Interests of Public Instruction in Indiana;*" by Rev. O. A. Burgess, on "*Morality in the School Room;*" by Pres. J. F. Tuttle, on a "*Plea for Common Schools;*" and by Gov. O. P. Morton on the "*Need of a State Normal School.*" Papers were read by G. P. Brown, on "*Imparting Instruction;*" by Miss Cornelia Crosby, on "*Some of the necessary Qualifications of a good Teacher;*" by J. H. Brown, on "*Reviews and Examinations;*" by Hiram Hadley, on the "*Best Method of teaching Writing;*" by J. M. Olcott, on "*Some of the Means of securing proper Discipline;*" and by W. A. Bell, on the "*Evils of too long Lessons;*" beside the "Teachers' Journal," by female members of the Association. Discussions were also held upon the questions of requiring pupils to give information of offenses; to what extent and in what way oral instruction should be given in the several grades of schools; and how to make primary schools what they should be. Reports were made respecting the District Institutes and the State Normal School Institute, to which the Association pledged its aid. Prof. R. T. Brown was elected president.

INDIANA EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

A. R. BENTON, A. M.

A. R. BENTON, President of the North Western Christian University of Indiana, was born in the town of Ira, Cayuga Co., N. Y., on the first of October, 1822. He was at a very early age distinguished by an eager desire for knowledge, and his progress kept pace with the facilities which were freely afforded him. In his later preparatoy and collegiate studies, he was especially indebted to the influence and guidance of E. E. Bragdon, principal of Fulton Academy, N. Y., Dr. Alexander Campbell of Bethany College, Va., and Prof. E. J. Conant of Rochester University. He took up instruction at first as affording means and opportunity for acquiring further knowledge, and after teaching for six winters in common schools in the State of New York, removed to Indiana in 1847, and there continued the occupation until habit has made it a lifework and a necessity. After having been engaged for six years with marked success as principal of an Academy, he was appointed professor of languages in the North Western Christian University, and after seven years service in this capacity was promoted to the presidency of the same institution. To an intimate knowledge of the Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages, Pres. Benton has added the study of the French and German, and an extensive acquaintance with both ancient and modern literature, while a taste for metaphysical research, for criticism, and for speculative inquiry has been freely indulged. He has participated largely in educational movements, has delivered numerous addresses before educational associations and lyceums, and has contributed regularly to the Indiana Journal of Education. He was elected in 1862 president of the State Teachers' Association, and gave an inaugural address upon the "*Self-Culture of Teachers*," that was very favorably received.

GEORGE W. HOSS, A. M.

GEORGE W. HOSS, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Indiana, was born in a log cabin in Brown County, Ohio, Nov. 6, 1824. With such school instruction as could be got for a few months in each year in very poor district schools in Ohio and Indiana, to which State his father removed in 1836, and with the better moral and industrial training which comes from a diligent and conscientious coöperation in all the labors of the house and the farm, (and this house and farm amid the stumps of a new country,) young Hoss at the age of eighteen began to teach others in a district school and thus earned his own way through Newburg University, in Greencastle, Indiana, where he graduated in 1850. In the fall of 1850 he took charge of an academy, where he continued until 1852, when he became instructor in the Indiana Female College, of which he was elected President in 1856, having for a portion of the

time taught in the State Institution for the Blind, and about the same period entered on the professorship of mathematics in the North Western Christian University of Indianapolis. On retiring from this last position, to become State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Trustees tendered him a formal vote expressive of their appreciation of "the eminent fidelity, industry, and success with which he had discharged the duties of his Chair."

Before his election by the people to the post of Superintendent, in the Fall of 1864, Prof. Hoss had identified himself with the cause of public instruction, by numerous addresses, by an active participation in Educational Institutes, Conventions and Associations, by serving as Editor and Manager of the State School Journal for two years, during which period he had brought up the subscription list from 400 to 1600, and by urging efficient legislation in behalf of schools, such as liberal support of Teachers' Institutes, an efficient system of State Teachers' Certificates, and a State Normal School. As an evidence of the teachers' appreciation of his services, he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in December, 1864.

JOSIAH HURTY, A. M.

JOSIAH HURTY was born in Lowville, Lewis County, New York, August 16th, 1814, of German parentage. His maternal grandfather was Professor of Music and Literature in Germany, and his paternal grandfather held an official position in our Revolutionary War, under General Herkimer. His father was a farmer, and took great interest in the district school, and the education of his children. He gave his son an opportunity to attend a select school kept by a Mr. Brown, and in the winter following he taught his first school at ten dollars a month with such success, that he continued to teach in the winter, and to read and work the rest of the year, until he was twenty-one years old. In the meantime he had read Hall on "*School Keeping*," and began to introduce the experiments suggested by that pioneer laborer. After much experience in teaching, and while preparing for college, he became a pupil of Rev. N. Bull, Principal of the Academy at Clarkson, to whose accurate teaching in Latin and Greek he feels himself greatly indebted. After admission to the Junior Class of Union College, he was obliged to suspend his college studies on account of illness, and on recovery, became principal of the academy at Bethany in 1842, where he taught for two years classes of teachers, and in 1844 held a Teachers' Institute, which continued in session for three weeks. In 1845 he removed to Mansfield, Ohio, where he taught a select school, and held in 1847 a Teachers' Institute, with the assistance of I. J. Allen, and H. Colby. In 1848 a normal class for six weeks was taught by him and others in Newark, Ohio, and in the year following he assisted in organizing the Ohio State Teachers' Association. In 1839 he became principal of the Union School at Zenia, which he conducted with great success until 1855, when he removed to Richmond, Indiana, to take charge of a public high school. Here he became agent of the Indiana State Association, which he had helped to establish. His reputation as an organizer and disciplinarian, causes him to be invited to different places when a beginning is to be made, and he has thus been instrumental in doing great good. In 1862 he was made Superintendent of the Public Schools of Lawrenceburg, Indiana.

MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

ASSOCIATIONS of teachers were formed in Maine as early, at least, as 1835, though the records of their proceedings are but scanty. In that year was organized the "*Teachers' Association of Bowdoin College*," composed of students of the college who were actually engaged in teaching during the winter vacation, and for their mutual improvement as teachers. It was their custom, besides the meetings during the college term, to hold two public meetings during the vacation at other towns for lectures and discussions upon the business of teaching and the interests of public schools. This Association was maintained for several years, to the manifest benefit of schools and teachers. One of its earliest proceedings was the preparation of an address to parents on "*Reformation in Family Government*;" and an excellent address upon the "*Characteristics of a Good District-school*" was delivered before this Association at Freeport in January, 1837, by Alpheus S. Packard, repeated at N. Yarmouth in December, and afterwards published—as were also other addresses which were delivered at various times.

In the same year, 1835, the "*Penobscot Association of Teachers and Friends of Popular Education*" was formed, of which we have the proceedings of the third meeting, held in Levant, Dec. 27th, 1837. Mr. D. Worcester was at that time acting President, and T. S. Harlow, Secretary. An address was delivered by E. G. Carpenter upon the "*Qualifications of an Efficient Teacher*." The next meeting was appointed at Bangor, Dec., 1838, when an address was delivered by Rev. Joseph C. Lovejoy. These addresses, together with that of 1836 by S. H. Blake, were published in 1839. A Teachers' Association was also held at Gorham in 1839, and several other County and Town Associations were organized at about the same period.

In October, 1841, and August, 1842, State Conventions of the mechanics of Maine were held at Augusta and Bangor, for consultation upon the welfare and elevation of the class represented by them.

Mechanics' Associations had been formed, during the several years previous, at Portland, Bangor, Augusta, and in several other towns, which had established libraries, procured courses of lectures, held debates, and used other means of mutual improvement and instruction. By far the oldest of these societies was the Maine Charitable Mechanic Association, instituted in January, 1815. Addresses were delivered before the State Conventions by J. S. Sayward, C. H. Holden, F. H. Morse, J. R. Macomber, and others. The general effect of all these society movements was to gradually awaken the public to a sense of the need of an improved system of popular education.

During the years 1837 and 1838 no little complaint had been made respecting the practical working of the common school system of the State, and in the Legislature there was a general feeling that the system was very defective, but no one was prepared to propose a remedy. Gov. Fairfield in his message of January, 1839, suggested the establishment of a Board of Education with an active and efficient secretary, as in Massachusetts, and the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary, which had been projected in 1835 in connection with Gorham Academy. At about the same time the publication of the "*Family and School Visitor*," in which much space was given to the discussion of educational matters, was commenced by Cyril Pearl, who had for several years previous lectured on these subjects before lyceums. On the 11th of February, 1839, during the session of the Legislature, a meeting of the friends of common schools, probably the first of the kind in the State, was held at Augusta, which was addressed by Robert Rantoul, Jr., of Massachusetts. No essential changes were however effected in the school law, though the friends of education still continued their exertions. In 1843 a vigorous effort was again made, and Hon. E. M. Thurston, of the House Committee on Literature and Literary Institutions, reported a bill providing for a Board of School Commissioners. The bill was discussed at length in the House, and the discussion widely circulated through the newspapers gave the first efficient impulse to educational reform in the State. The measure failed in the Senate. In 1845 a similar bill, providing for a Board of School Commissioners, was introduced by S. H. Chase, chairman of the Committee on Education in the Senate, with an able report upon the condition and wants of education in the State, which gave rise to prolonged discussion in both branches of the Legislature, but was finally defeated.

Still undiscouraged, a Convention of teachers and friends of pop-

ular education was held at Augusta in January, 1846, at which lectures were delivered by gentlemen appointed by a committee of a convention that had been held in the previous year, and the defects of the existing system and their remedies were discussed. Unable to arrive at a definite result, the whole subject was submitted to a committee, consisting of Amos Brown, Philip Eastman, A. S. Packard, and S. P. Benson, who should address a memorial to the next Legislature with such suggestions as they might judge advisable. At the May session the memorial was presented and referred to the Senate Committee on Education, of which E. M. Thurston was chairman. By him a bill was prepared, providing for a Board of Education, in accordance with the suggestions of the memorial, which bill was passed by a large majority in July. The election of the members of this Board by the school committees of the towns in the several counties, led to the meeting of a number of County Education Conventions in the fall of this year, and the active exertions of Mr. Thurston, who as provisional agent visited every county, aided very greatly the successful organization of the Board. The next Legislature in accordance with its recommendations, with several other essential modifications in the School Law, made provision for the annual holding of Teachers' Institutes in each county, and in 1847 and until the repeal of the law in 1852, Institutes were annually held in all the counties of the State, under the able direction of the successive secretaries of the Board, W. G. Crosby and E. M. Thurston, with an aggregate attendance of over 9,000 teachers. Out of these Institutes sprung in 1848 Teachers' Associations in several counties and towns.

On the 9th of November, 1853, a State Educational Convention met in Augusta principally for the purpose of the formation of a State Association. Rev. David Thurston was appointed chairman, and A. B. Wiggin, Secretary. A constitution was adopted, and the "*Maine Educational Association*" was organized by the election of the following officers:—J. T. Champlin, *President.* Moses Lyford, S. F. Dyke, and H. K. Baker, *Vice-Presidents.* E. P. Weston and A. B. Wiggin, *Secretaries.* A. G. Dole, *Treasurer.* Resolutions were passed in favor of a permanent Board of "Superintendents of Public Instruction," the establishment of Teachers' Institutes, and of Normal Schools, and Messrs. Prof. J. T. Champlin, Rev. S. Souther, and J. T. Huston, were appointed a committee to petition the Legislature in behalf of those objects. The annual meeting of the Association was appointed to be held on the 18th of January following, but we have no report of any subsequent proceedings and

this first attempt to form a State Association proved a failure. In April, 1854, a law was passed providing for a Superintendent of Common Schools and making appropriations for County Conventions of Teachers, which were annually held without interruption after 1855.

MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

In June, 1858, the Superintendent of Common Schools, Hon. Mark H. Dunnell, commenced the publication of the "Maine Teacher," in which appeared reports of the successful working of many of the County Conventions. In the December number the attention of teachers was again called to the subject of a State Association, and a preliminary meeting was afterwards appointed to be held at Augusta, March 23d, 1859. At this meeting the MAINE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized, a constitution adopted, and the following officers elected:—Mark H. Dunnell, *Pres.* B. D. Verrill, *Sec.* G. W. Blanchard, *Treas.* M. H. Dunnell, B. D. Verrill, G. T. Fletcher, A. E. Buck, and W. T. H. Craig, *Ex. Com.*, and fifteen Vice-Presidents. A discussion followed upon the prospects and aims of the Association.

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.—At Waterville, Nov. 16, 1859. Lectures were delivered by Dr. N. T. True, on the "*Elements of Power;*" by Rev. E. B. Webb, on "*Hugh Miller;*" by Rev. Cyril Pearl, on the "*Teacher's Vocation;*" by E. P. Weston, on the "*Schoolmaster;*" by Isaiah Dole, on the "*Elements of English Grammar;*" by Rev. J. Burnham, on the "*Teacher's Duties and Qualifications;*" and by Walter Wells, on "*Sun Power.*" The most prominent subjects of discussion were the best methods of communicating moral and religious instruction, the awarding of prizes to scholars, the study of the natural sciences in common schools, and especially the necessity for the establishment of a State Normal School. Officers elected:—M. H. Dunnell, *Pres.* N. T. True, *Sec.* F. Staples, *Treas.* E. P. Weston, M. Lyford, and R. B. Shepherd, with the President and Secretary, *Ex Com.*

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Lewiston, Nov. 26th, 1860. Lectures from Dr. N. T. True, on the "*Philosophy of Teaching;*" by Ebenezer Knowlton, on "*Muscular Christianity;*" by Prof. J. T. Champlin, on the "*Effects of Education on the Mind;*" by J. D. Pulsifer, on "*Phonetics;*" by Walter Wells, on "*A Working World;*" and by Prof. W. Smyth, on "*Graded Schools.*" Discussions were held upon "*Methods of Teaching,*" "*Physical Culture,*" "*Oral Instruction,*" and "Modes of School Government," and the subject of a

Normal School was again brought forward. The principal officers were reëlected.

The next Legislature, by the "Normal School Act" of March 20th, 1860, repealed the Act providing for County Conventions, and granted appropriations to such of eighteen designated academies as should establish normal classes in accordance with the provisions of the act. After two years' trial, the result was found unsatisfactory, and the Superintendent was ordered to investigate and report with reference to the establishment of a more efficient system. This was followed by the passage of the act of March 25th, 1863, authorizing the establishment of two Normal Schools in the eastern and western parts of the State. The western school was opened at Farmington, Aug. 24th, 1864, and is in successful operation; the location of the second school has been deferred.

Third Annual Meeting.—At Richmond, Nov. 18th, 1861. Lectures were delivered by J. H. Hanson, on the "*Practical in Education;*" by Prof. M. Lyford, on "*Intellectual Culture;*" by Prof. A. S. Packard, on the "*Progress of Popular Instruction;*" and by C. F. Allen, on the "*Characteristics of the Successful Teacher*"—accompanied by discussions upon "*Educational Associations,*" "*The relative Importance of different Studies,*" "*The Defects of the School Law,*" "*Use of the Blackboard,*" and the "*True Aims of the Common School.*" Resolutions were adopted urging the formation of County Teachers' Associations—in favor of authorizing a uniform series of text-books—and recommending greater attention to physical culture and the encouragement of active amusements. Hon E. P. Weston was elected President, and C. L. Houghton, Secretary.

Fourth Annual Meeting.—At Bangor, Nov. 24th, 1862. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on the "*Relation of the War to Education;*" by Dr. Harris, on the "*General Relations of the Teacher and Taught;*" by Prof. L. Dunton, on the "*Duties of Parents in the Intellectual Education of Children;*" and by Prof. M. Lyford, on "*Methods in Education.*" Methods of opening and conducting school exercises were given by M. Pickering and J. M. Hanson of the Portland schools, and discussions were held upon the "*Responsibility for the Failure or Success of Schools,*" and "*Modes of Teaching Reading.*" Remarks were also made by Messrs. A. P. Kelsey, Noah Woods, and Prof. Briggs upon the more efficient supervision of schools, the appointment of teachers by school committees, and on vocal culture. Class exercises in grammar, arithmetic, and reading were conducted by Messrs. J. E. Littlefield, D. B. Tower, J. F. Rich, and Briggs. A resolution asserting the duty of

the State to provide for the better education of its teachers was discussed and adopted, and action was also taken respecting a change in the management of the "Maine Teacher." Hon. E. P. Weston was reëlected President, and A. P. Kelsey elected Secretary.

An adjourned session of the Association was held at Augusta, January 27th, 1863, during the session of the Legislature. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on "*Some Elements of the Teacher's Life;*" by A. P. Kelsey, on the "*Bequests of War;*" and by S. A. Dike, on "*Right Methods in Education.*" Discussions were held on the "*Methods of Promoting an Interest in Common Schools,*" "*Truancy and its Causes,*" "*The Course of Studies in Common Schools,*" "*Co-education of the Sexes,*" "*The True Position of Academical Institutions,*" and on "*Music and Gymnastics in Schools.*" Rev. Noah Woods addressed the Association in favor of the speedy establishment of a Normal School, and Rev. Mr. Dudley made a report upon education among the contrabands. Resolutions were adopted, repeating the plea for Normal Schools, recommending the more thorough classification and gradation of schools, advising more attention to political instruction and physical training, &c.

Fifth Annual Meeting.—At Bath, Nov. 23d, 1863. Lectures were delivered by E. P. Weston, on "*Extremes in Education;*" and by Prof. Sanborn Tenney, on "*Geography;*" and essays were read by Dr. N. T. True, on "*Relative and Exhaustive Instruction;*" by Isaiah Dole, on the "*Proper Aim in Studying Languages, and the Methods of Teaching;*" by Rev. N. Woods, on "*School Supervision;*" by R. A. Rideout, on the "*General Relations of Teachers and Taught, and Methods of Teaching;*" by Rev. Dr. Sheldon, on "*Proper Incentives to be used in Schools;*" by E. S. Morse, on "*Zoölogy;*" and by J. J. Taylor, on "*School Government.*" A report was read by A. P. Kelsey upon Education in other States, and a paper was also read upon "*Schools Sixty Years Ago.*" Class exercises were given in gymnastics, arithmetic, and geography. Hon. E. P. Weston and A. P. Kelsey were reëlected to office.

Sixth Annual Meeting.—At Skowhegan, Nov. 21st, 1864. The Secretary, A. P. Kelsey, read a report upon the progress of education in the several States, and upon the successful opening of the Normal School at Farmington. An interesting discussion was held upon the defects of the School Law—in favor of the transference of the duty of employing teachers from district agents to the Town Committees—upon truancy and in favor of compulsory attendance—and upon more efficient means of school supervision. Prof. M. Lyford was elected President, and L. Dunton, Secretary.

MAINE EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

MARK H. DUNNELL.

MARK H. DUNNELL, for three years after its organization President of the Maine Teachers' Association, was born at Buxton, in the County of York, Maine, July 2d, 1823. Brought up upon a farm, with the usual facilities for a common school education, at the age of eighteen he commenced the study of Latin, and after four or five months of instruction in each of the following years, entered Waterville College in 1845. After graduation in 1849, he was for two years principal of the Norway Academy, and then, for three years, of Hebron Academy, in Oxford County.

In 1854, Mr. Dunnell was elected member of the House of Representatives in the State Legislature, and as member of the Committee on Education, was active in promoting the passage of the law creating the office of Superintendent of Common Schools, and County Institutes of Teachers. The next year he was elected to the Senate Chamber, and in March, 1855, was appointed by Gov. Morrill State Superintendent of Schools for that year, to which office he was re-appointed by Gov. Hamlin in 1857. During the four years of his superintendency, the duties of the office required more than seventeen thousand miles of travel into every section of the State. He held annually a County Teachers' Institute in each county, and in Nov., 1859, called the first State Teachers' Convention, at which was organized the present State Association. In June, 1858, Mr. Dunnell established the "*Maine Teacher*," taking upon himself the whole labor and responsibility. It was afterward continued by his successor, Hon. E P. Weston. Declining a renomination, he in January, 1860, opened a law office in the city of Portland, in company with Stephen Boothby. Mr. Boothby had been a successful teacher and Institute instructor, and as Lieutenant Colonel of the First Maine Cavalry, fell in the Battles of the Wilderness.

Mr. Dunnell remained at Portland till the war opened, when he went as Colonel of the Fifth Maine Volunteers to Washington. Here he participated in the ever memorable battle of Bull Run, but after four months of service was compelled by ill-health to resign his command. Having accepted the consulship at Vera Cruz, he witnessed the surrender of that city to the French in Dec., 1861, but returned in the following year to his native town, where he resided until 1864. He then removed with his family to Winona, Minnesota, where he commenced business again as an attorney-at-law.

EDWARD P. WESTON.

EDWARD PAYSON WESTON was born in Boothbay, Maine, January 19th, 1819, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1839. Devoting himself to educational and literary pursuits, he was for thirteen years principal of the well-known Maine Female Seminary at Gorham, which position he resigned upon his appointment as State Superintendent of Schools in January, 1860. This office he held for five years. The enactment of the Normal School Act of the same year was due greatly to his exertions, and he was prominently active in carrying the law into operation, and in effecting the establishment of the first State Normal School, at Farmington. He was editor of the "Maine Teacher" from the commencement of its third volume in 1860 for three years, and had previously edited the Portland Transcript. In January, 1864, he commenced the publication of the "*Northern Monthly*," a literary magazine, which he continued for one year. He was in 1864 elected to the State Legislature, and he was also delegate from the Cumberland County Conference to the National Congregational Council held at Boston in June, 1865. Upon resigning the office of State Superintendent, he became principal of the Abbott School at Farmington, which position he still occupies.

JOHN H. C. COFFIN.

JOHN H. C. COFFIN was born September 14th, 1815, in Wiscasset, Maine, and received his elementary instruction in the town schools, and particularly in a public high school, conducted on the Lancasterian plan by Rev. John L. Parkhurst. Here, as a monitor in every branch of study, he acquired a fondness and facility in teaching, and from a thorough mastery of Colburn's Intellectual Arithmetic, a taste for mathematics, which decided his future studies and occupation. He entered Bowdoin College, Maine, in 1830, and graduated in 1834, the fifth in a class of thirty-four; manifesting specially a fondness for mathematical branches, in which his ambition was stimulated by his brother-in-law, Prof. William Smyth, being in charge of that department of instruction.

In January, 1836, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the Navy, and was employed on board sea-going ships and at the Norfolk Navy Yard, in instructing midshipmen under the old and happily exploded system, and in surveys on the coast of Florida until 1844. From that year until 1853 he was actively engaged at the Naval Observatory in Washington, from which institution he was transferred to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, in charge of the departments of Mathematics, or of Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying, and part of the time of both. In 1865 he was assigned, on the death of Capt. Gilies, to the Astronomical Almanac.

Yours very truly
Edw. P. Wilson

Yours very truly,
Edw. F. Weston

CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE first Educational Association in the State of California was formed by the teachers of the city of San Francisco, in the year 1852, and reorganized in November, 1853. These social reunions of the pioneer teachers of California, gathered from every part of the Union, were exceedingly interesting and instructive, and during the early history of the free-school enterprise, were the means of accomplishing great good in the cause of education. This association was at first attended by all the teachers of the schools, but since the organization of the City Normal School in 1859, it consists only of the male teachers.

The first State Educational Convention was held in San Francisco, December 26th, 27th, and 28th, 1854, on the call of Superintendent Hubbs. Addresses were delivered by Col. E. D. Baker, on "*General Education;*" by Dr. Winslow, on "*The Use of the Bible in Common Schools;*" by Rev. S. V. Blakesly, on "*Phonography in School;*" by Mr. Wells, on "*School Management;*" by Mr. Buffington, on "*Education;*" by Mr. S. Day, on "*The Objects of Public Instruction;*" by Mr. J. Swett, on "*Elocution;*" by Q. C. Morrill, on "*Unclassified Schools.*" Discussions were had on the subjects of the lectures, and on "*Teachers' Institutes,*" "*School Libraries,*" "*The Co-education of the Sexes,*" "*Physical Exercise,*" &c.

A second State Convention met at Benicia, August 12th, 1856. Essays were read and discussions had on "*The Bible in Public Schools;*" on "*The English Language;*" on "*Thorough Training;*" on "*Corporal Punishment;*" on "*Females as Teachers;*" on "*Moral Ethics in Schools.*"

STATE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. A. J. Moulder, in his Annual Reports for 1858 and 1859, had strongly urged the subject upon the attention of the Legislature, and had recommended that the Superintendent should be authorized to hold one or more

Institutes each year, and that an appropriation be made to defray the necessary expenses. The Legislature of 1860 accordingly sanctioned the formation of a State Teachers' Institute, and made a liberal appropriation for its support, and the first "State Educational Convention and Teachers' Institute" was held in 1861 at San Francisco, under the charge of the State Superintendent. The proceedings were published and distributed throughout the State, and did good service in exciting interest and imparting information. The second meeting was held in Sacramento, on the 23d of September, 1862, and continued in session five days. The superintendent in his report says of it:—"The Institute is no longer an experiment. It has more than fulfilled all that the superintendent claimed for it in his first appeal in its behalf to the Legislature. It has imparted vitality to teachers; it has created an *esprit du corps;* it has stimulated the backward to efforts that may place them on an equality with their more favored associates; it has called public attention to their efforts; it has given them a higher place in public estimation, and, by a natural reaction, it has stimulated and promoted the organization of auxiliary Institutes in most of the important counties of the State." The Legislature of 1862–3 authorized the holding of County Institutes, under the direction of the County Superintendents, and made a grant of $150 to each that should be held.

In February, 1863, the superintendent, Hon. John Swett, issued a circular calling the third meeting of the State Teachers' Institute. In this circular, the superintendent distinctly proposed the organization of a State Society, that should recognize and inaugurate a "*Profession of Teachers*," and he set forth at length and in an able manner the reasons which made such action desirable. He says:—

Why should not the pioneer teachers of this State, in the next Institute, take similar measures of self-organization, self-recognition, and self-examination, and raise themselves above the humiliating necessity of submitting to an examination by members of other professions, or of no professions at all? A "State Educational Society" could be organized by those who shall pass the next examination by the State Board, those who hold diplomas of graduation from Normal Schools, and the Professors in the various Colleges and Collegiate Schools of the State. This society could become legally incorporated at the next session of the Legislature, and other members could be admitted from time to time, by passing a regular examination and receiving diplomas. Such certificates would soon be gladly recognized by unprofessional examiners (many of whom, though men of education, feel that they are not duly qualified to sit in judgment on the competency of teachers for their peculiar work) as the best possible assurance of fitness to teach. And teachers may rest assured that legislative enactments would soon follow, making such diplomas *prima facie* evidence of ability to teach in any part of the State without further examination.

A "State Society" would unite the teachers of our State in the bonds of fraternal sympathy; a certificate of membership would entitle the holder to the aid of members in all parts of the State; it would be a passport of employment when he should change his residence; it would entitle him to the substantial

benefits of an honorable reception among all teachers; and a small annual membership fee would soon constitute a fund for the establishment of a "Teachers' Journal" as the organ of the society.

The Institute met in San Francisco, on the 4th of May, and continued in session until the 9th. This was one of the largest and most enthusiastic educational meetings ever assembled in the United States. Four hundred and sixty-three registered members were present, and the daily sessions were attended by hundreds of others interested in public schools. A course of free public evening lectures were delivered before the Institute by the following lecturers: By Prof. G. W. Minns, on "*Physical Geography;*" by Prof. Whitney, State Geologist, on "*The Character of Alexander Humboldt;*" by Rev. T. Starr King, on "*The Bigelow Papers;*" and by Hon. John Swett, on "*The Relation of the State to Public Schools.*" Lectures, essays, and addresses ware read during the day sessions by the following gentlemen:—By Prof. S. J. C. Swezey, on "*Normal Schools*" and "*English Composition;*" by Rev. S. H. Willey, on "*The Educational Position and Relations of the College;*" by Theodore Bradley, on "*School Discipline;*" by H. P. Carlton, on "*Object Teaching;*" by D. C. Stone, on "*Grammar;*" by Rev. J. E. Benton, on "*Education;*" by Bernhard Marks, on "*Waste in the School room;*" by Dr. F. W. Hatch, on "*The Need of Good Teachers;*" by J. S. Hittell, on "*Defects in Teaching;*" by John Swett, on "*Common Sense in Teaching;*" by Hubert Burgess, on "*Linear Drawing;*" and by Alnira Holmes, on "*The State Normal School.*" The result was highly satisfactory. Aside from all the incidental labors and benefits of the Institute, five substantial facts remained as monuments:—*First*, The establishment of an educational journal, "*The California Teacher;*"—*Second*, The adoption of a uniform State series of text-books;—*Third*, Action on the question of a State tax for the support of public schools;—*Fourth*, A system of State diplomas and certificates;—and *fifth*, the organization of a State Educational Society. The proceedings of the Institute were published in a pamphlet of 166 pages, and an edition of two thousand four hundred copies was distributed among the various school officers of the State. So thoroughly had the work before this Institute been accomplished that it was deemed unnecessary and inadvisable to call another in the following year, and no appropriation was asked for that object.

The fourth State Institute was held at San Francisco on the 19th of September, 1865. Addresses were delivered by Rev. John E. Benton, on "*The State and the School;*" by Superintendent Swett, on

"*The School Law;*" by Charles R. Clark, on "*Geography of California;*" by Prof. Kellogg, on "*A Practical Education;*" by E. Knowlton, on "*Physical Training;*" by H. C. Carlton, on "*Physiology;*" by Dr. W. Ayer, on "*Force;*" by B. Marks, on "*European and American Systems of Education;*" by Prof. S. H. Willey, on "*Moral Training;*" by R. Keeler, on "*Modern Languages in Public Schools;*" by Dr. Lucky, on "*Education.*" Discussions were had on these topics, and on "*School Libraries,*" "*Ungraded Schools,*" and *Teachers' Life Diplomas.*"

These State Institutes have had an average attendance of over 300 teachers, and during the sessions, examinations have been held by a State Board of Examiners, and since 1863 to 1865, 44 State diplomas, 45 first grade certificates, 32 second grade, and 50 third grade certificates have been granted.

CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

One of the results of the Institute was the formation of the CALIFORNIA EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY, in accordance with the principles set forth in the circular of the Superintendent. The subject was referred to a committee, who through its chairman, Theodore Bradley, of San Francisco, made a preliminary report which resulted in the appointment of a meeting to be held May 9th, 1863. All gentlemen who favored the organization of a professional society of teachers were invited to be present. This meeting was held in San Francisco, and was adjourned from week to week for discussions of the various points that arose in preparing a constitution for the proposed society. On the 6th of June, the society was finally organized by the adoption of the following preamble and constitution, and by the election of officers:—

PREAMBLE.

We, as teachers of California, in order to further the educational interests of the State, to give efficiency to our school system, to furnish a practical basis for united action among those devoted to the cause in which we are engaged, and, for those purposes, to elevate the office of teacher to its true rank among the professions, do hereby adopt the following

CONSTITUTION.

1. This organization shall be known as the "*California Educational Society.*
2. The qualification of members shall be: a good moral character; three years' successful experience, *one* of which must have been in this State; and ability to pass a thorough examination in Reading, Spelling, Penmanship, Drawing, Object Teaching, Geography, Grammar, History, Arithmetic, Algebra, Physiology, and Natural Philosophy.
3. This society shall consist of male members only.
4. All male graduates of State Normal Schools in the United States, who have taught three years previous to their application for admission to this society, and

who are residents of this State, and all male holders of State Educational Diplomas, as provided by the laws of California, shall be eligible to membership upon the recommendation of the Examining Committee.

5. Each member, upon his election, shall sign this Constitution, and pay into the treasury the sum of ten dollars.

6. Honorary membership may be conferred upon any gentleman eminent for literary attainments, or for successful service in the cause of popular education, upon the recommendation of the Examining Committee, and a two-thirds vote of the members present at any regular meeting.

7. Any member may be expelled for unprofessional conduct by a two-thirds vote of members present at any regular meeting; *provided*, that a copy of the charges be deposited with the Recording Secretary at least four weeks before the meeting at which the charges are acted upon, and immediate notice thereof be given to the accused.

8. The officers of this society shall be a President, two Vice Presidents, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treasurer, who shall be elected by ballot at a regular annual meeting, and shall hold their offices for one year, or until their successors be chosen.

9. The duties of the President, Vice Presidents, Recording Secretary, and Treasurer, shall be the same as those usually devolving upon such officers. The duty of the Corresponding Secretary shall be to conduct the correspondence of the society under the direction of the Executive Committee.

10. There shall be an Executive Committee which shall be composed of the officers of the current year, together with five other members of the society, to be elected at each annual meeting, and to hold their offices for one year.

11. There shall be an Examining Committee of three members, who shall be elected out of six members nominated for that purpose by the Executive Committee: the three nominees having the highest number of votes to be considered elected.

12. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to manage the general business of the society, to examine the accounts of the Treasurer, and audit all claims upon the treasury. It shall be the duty of the Examining Committee to inquire into and determine upon the qualification of candidates for membership, and to report to the society at its next regular meeting.

13. All voting upon admission to the society, or upon matters pertaining to the provisions of this Constitution, shall be by ballot.

14. A two-thirds vote of members present at any regular meeting shall be sufficient to elect a candidate proposed by the Examining Committee.

15. Members may vote either in person or proxy; *provided*, that the proxy be made known in writing to the Recording Secretary.

16. There shall be a regular annual meeting of the society on the third Saturday of May in each year, in the city of San Francisco, or at such other time and place as may be appointed by the President with the consent of the Executive Committee; but in case a quorum be not present at that time, the officers shall hold over another year, or until their successors be chosen.

17. There shall be a meeting of the society at least once in three months, for the purpose of promoting the interests of education in all its departments. The exercises at these meetings may be determined by the President in conjunction with the Executive Committee.

18. No political or sectarian discussions shall be allowed in the meetings of this society.

19. Assessments may be made from time to time at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of members present.

20. Every member of this society shall be entitled to a diploma in such form as the Executive Committee shall decide upon, and under the official seal and signature of the society; but no diplomas shall be issued to honorary members.

21. After the close of the second annual meeting of this society, this Constitution shall not be altered or amended, except by a vote of three-fourths of the members present at an annual meeting, and after one month's previous notice in the "*California Teacher*," or some other suitable medium.

OFFICERS.

Officers were elected, as follows:—John Swett, *President.* T. S. Myrick and D. C. Stone, *Vice Presidents.* T. C. Leonard, *Corresponding Secretary.* Bernhard Marks, *Recording Secretary.* J. C. Pelton, *Treasurer.* The officers of the society and Messrs. S. J. C. Swezey, James Stratton, A. E. McGlynn, S. A. White, and A. H. Goodrich, *Executive Committee.* Messrs. John Swett, George Tait, and T. C. Leonard, *Examining Committee.*

Superintendent Swett, in his report for 1863, thus concludes his notice of it:—"The society already numbers thirty members. It is intended to make it strictly a *professional society* by admitting to membership only teachers of approved ability, scholarship, and experience. Its object is to make the *occupation* of teaching a *profession;* to discountenance quacks and empirics; and to make the influence of the teachers of the State felt as an organized body. When it shall have gained strength by numbers, it will ask of the Legislature that its professional diplomas shall be considered as licenses to teach in any part of the State without further examination. It stands as the first professional society organized on such a basis in the United States."

JOHN SWETT.

JOHN SWETT was born in Pittsfield, N. H., July 31st, 1830. Besides the district school he attended the academy in his native place, and subsequently the academy in Pembroke, N. H. His professional training as a teacher he received at Merrimac Normal Institute, Reed's Ferry, N. H., under the direction of Prof. William Russell, with whose services in the cause of education our readers are well acquainted.

Mr. Swett emigrated to California in 1852, and for some time devoted his attention to mining and agricultural pursuits, till opportunity presented itself for entering on occupation more congenial to his tastes and habits. We find him accordingly established, ere long, as principal of Rincon Point School, San Francisco, where his pioneer labors for ten years were attended with such distinguished success as to lead to his appointment as State Superintendent of Public Education in 1863.

He has taken an active interest in the educational conventions, institues, and associations which have been from time to time held and formed in California. To him the State Teachers' Institute, with its system of State examination and diplomas of proficiency to candidates for teaching, and the California Educational Society, are largely indebted for their organization and efficiency. His administration of the system of public schools has been marked with vigor and progress, and the Revised School Law prepared by him is a model of codification for this department of public legislation.

INDEX TO VOLUME XVI.

OF

BARNARD'S AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

[NEW SERIES, VOLUME VI.]

Abbisselfa, 121.
Abbott, Gorham D., Memoir and Portrait, 600.
Academy, meaning and grade of, 413, 421, 425.
  English, 413.
Academies of New England, 403.
Admission to Schools by nomination, 684.
  Competitive examination, 591, 684.
  St. Mary's College, 591.
  St. Paul's School, 684.
Adolescence, peculiar training in, 427.
Adult Schools and Instruction in Austria, 343, 351.
Age for admission to English Public Schools, 591, 684.
Agriculture, appropriations for schools of, 591.
Alabama Educational Associations, 375.
Alarm Clock at Winchester School, 590.
Albertus, 681.
Alcott, A. Bronson, 130, 144.
  My School and School House, 130.
Alcott, W. A., 144.
Allen's Reading Table, 571.
Alphabet, how taught formerly, 132.
  Novel mode of teaching, 681.
American Normal School, 449.
American Social Science Association, 391.
Andover, Phillips' Academy, 423.
Andover, Teachers' Seminary, 76.
Andrews, Israel W., Memoir and Portrait, 605.
Andrews, Lorin, Memoir, 604.
Anglo Saxon in study of English Language, 568.
Anperant, 121.
Apparatus, place to be provided for, 569
  List of indispensables, 570.
Appetites to be controlled, 53.
Archemedian mode of ventilation, 716.
Arithmetic, how taught fifty years ago, 133, 738.
  Austrian Schools, 341.
  English Public Schools, 523.
  Prussian Normal School, 398.
Arithmeticon, 577.
Arkansas, 381.
Associations, Educational, 311.
  National, 315, 391.
  State, 317, 353, 729.
Austria,—Territory—Pop.—Nationalities—Religions, 5.
Austria, System of public instruction, 5, 337, 609, 669.
I. *Elementary Schools and Instruction*, 8, 338.
  Reactionary movement against Luther, 3.
  Teaching Religious Orders, Piarists—Jesuits, 8.
  Maria Theresa—Felbiger—Kindermann—Firmian, 9.
  Board of Education for Up. and Low. Austria, 9.
  Joseph II.—Von Swieten—J. A. Gall, 12.
  Toleration Charter, 1781—Jews' Socratic System, 13.
  Normal School Certificate—Singing, 13.
  Industrial Instruction—Corporal punishment, 13.
  Leopold II.—Martini—Teachers' Associations, 14.
  Francis I.—Rottenham—Restrictions, 14.
  Board of Ed. Reform in 1795—Constitution of Government Schools, 15.
  Trivial Schools—Circle High Schools, 15.
Austria—*Elementary Schools*, 16.
  Spendou—Teachers declared State Officials, 16.
  Lombardy-Venetian Schools—Military Frontier, 17.
  Francis Joseph I. and School Reform of 1848, 18.
  Feuchtersleben and Baron von Helfert, 19.
  Concordat with the Pope—Church and Schools, 21.
  Chevalier de Schmerling—Lewinski—Hasner, 22.
  Classes and condition of Schools in 1864, 23.
  Sectarian character—Compulsory attendance, 24.
  Superintendence—buildings—grades of teachers, 27.
  Election, salaries, removal, pensions of teachers, 29.
  Terms and times of instruction—text books—apparatus, 338.
  Studies—discipline—examinations—tuition, 341.
  Burgher Schools—teachers' seminaries, 345.
  Government Publishing House, 347.
  Results and Defects, 348.
II. *Secondary Schools and Education*, 609.
  Historical Development prior to Maria Theresa, 609.
  Schools of the Jesuits—Piarists—Benedictines, 610.
  Reform of Joseph I. and Charles VI.—State Board, 611.
  State Board of Swieten, and Migazzi—Abolition of Jesuits' Schools, 611.
  Martini—Prof. Hess—Gratian Marx—Morality, 612.
  German Language—corporal punishment—Boarding School, 613.
  Leopold II.—Martini—Teachers' Association, 614.
  Lang—Catechist—Examination and Appointments.
  Gymnasial Code of 1805—State Board of Ed. 616.
  Statistics in 1818—Limitation in Phil. Course, 618.
  Ferdinand I.—Hallaschka—statistics of 1848, 620.
  Reorganization in 1848—Count Thun—Exner, 622.

Baker, William M., Memoir, 166.
Barbarism, the danger of a new country, 408.
Barnard, H., articles, 75, 105, 149, 351, 473, 501, 569.
  Report on organization of St. John's College, 539.
Barring out the Teacher—Georgia school scene, 121.
Bateman, N., Memoir and Portrait, 167.
Bates, William G., Dedicatory Address, 453.
Beecher, Henry W., reminiscences of school house, 125.
Benedictines in Austria, 610.
Benefactors of Education,—John Colet, 657.
  Dummer, 410.
  Hopkins, Edward, 407.
  Long, or William of Wykeham, 497.
  Phillips and Crafts, 415, 423.
  Goddard, W. S., 514.
Benton, A. R., Memoir. 775.
Bible, on wisdom and conduct, 225.
Biographical Sketches, 519, 525, 531. *See* Memoirs.
Bilson, Thomas, 509.
Blackboard, when introduced, 142.
  Directions for making, 573, 575.
Blewett, B. T., Memoir and Portrait, 431.
Boarding System in English Public Schools, 519.
Book Keeping, 739.
Book Publishing House, 347.

Book, value of, 66.
Books or Forms in St. Mary's College, 527.
Boston, latest school structures, 701.
  Model Primary School House, 701.
  Prescott Grammar School House, 715.
  Classification of Grammar Schools, 715.
Boy Tutors in Winchester College, 227.
Bradley, N. J., plan of school house, 704.
Brainard, T., home and school life in Conn., 331.
Breakfast Waiters in English Public Schools, 515.
Bridgewater Normal School, 449.
  Historical Development, 449.
  Dedicatory Address, 452.
  Plans of school house, 465.
Brooks, Charles, on Normal Schools, 92, 145.
Brosius, Francis Xavier, 141.
Brougham, Henry Lord, letter to Macaulay, 187.
  Value of Oratory, 190.
Brown's self regulating hot water furnace, 713.
Buckham, M. H., study of English Language, 555.
Buenos Ayres, educational progress, 597.
Bunyan, philological study of, 562.
Burgher Schools, in Austria, 344, 351.
Burrowes, T. Normal School System of Penn., 195.
Burton, Warren, Memoir, 430.

Calazanzio, 698.
Caldwell, C., Memoir of, 109.
  State of education in North Carolina, 109.
Calhoun, W. B., report on Normal Schools, 86.
California, public instruction, 625.
  Educational Association, 785.
  Revised School Law, 631.
  County Superintendence, 635.
Camp, D. N. on Oswego object teaching, 269.
Campbell, Wm., on ignorance in Virginia, 173.
Carlyle, Thomas, letter to a student on reading, 191.
Carter, James G., 76, 85.
  Outline of institution for teachers, 77.
Catechism, in Dorchester Town School, 107.
Certificate of teachers' proficiency, State, 631.
Chapel service, 531.
Charnock, Father Richard, Erasmus, 659.
Child and Children in St. Mary's College, 525.
Chili Normal School, 594.
Chilson, Gardner, Furnace, 579, 582.
  Ventilating stove, 589.
Choate, Rufus, cited, 332.
Choristers in Austria, 32.
  St. Mary's College, 594.
Christian Brothers in Rome, 698.
Clark's ventilating school stove, 716.
Class system in Austrian gymnasium, 690.
Classification, 22, 715, 336.
Cleanliness healthful and moral, 36.
Clerical body as teachers, 697.
Cleveland, N., Dummer Academy, 402.
Coffin, I. H. C., Memoir, 784.
Colet, John, Memoir, 657.
  St. Paul's School, 667.
Commoners in St. Mary's College, 594, 531.
Competitive examination, 16, 525.
Composition, art of, 641.
Compulsory school attendance, 24, 343, 689.
Conant, M., on Normal Schools, 449.
Conduct and studies, 186, 216.
  Brougham, 187.
  Carlyle 191.
  Niebuhr, 216.
  Southey, 223.
Conferences of teachers, 338, 526.
Connecticut, revival of education, 143.
  Home education, 331.
  School education, 335.
Contents of March Number, 5.
  June Number, 193.
  September Number 401.
  December Number, 593.
Conversation, power of, 682.
  English Language, place in, 557, 569.
Course of study of English Language, 556.
Course of study, Austrian schools, 339, 344.
Course of study, St. Mary's College, 527.
  Bridgewater Normal School, 450.
  Oswego Normal School, 211, 265.
Corporal punishment, Austrian schools, 614, 688.
  New England, 107.
  English, 680.
  Erasmus on, 680.
Courage, 57.
Cowdry, M. F., formation of moral character, 22.
Crafts, Col., 413.
Crayons, how made, 574.
Crosby, David, Memoir, 763.
Cross, M. K., Memoir, 749.
Culver's Furnace, 579.

Dancing, 494.
Dane, Nathan, 416.
Day, Henry N., 641.
  Teaching composition, 641.
Day, Jeremiah, Memoir, 126.
  Schools as they were, 126.
Day school, discipline, 686.
  Responsibility out of School Houses and grounds, 68
Davenport, John, 406.
Declamation, 561.
Degrees, how conferred in St. John's College, 53
Delaware Educational Conventions, 269.
Demosthenes, 139, 121.
Designed Education, 63.
De Tocqueville, cited, 283.
Discipline, Austrian Schools, 341.
  St. Mary's College, 517, 530.
  St. Paul's School, 686.
  Erasmus on, 681.
  Tillotson, 681.
  Spensippus, 681.
Dispars in Winchester School, 505.
District of Columbia, 290.
  Columbian Association of Teachers, 289.
Dominicans, 667.
Dorchester, (Mass.,) Town School, 105.
  Regulations adopted in 1645, 106.
  Mathers' Catechism, 108.
Dove, Daniel, the Doctor of Southey, 432.
  Old English character, home, &c., 433.
Drawing, 488, 544, 555.
Du Bartas, cited, 225.
  Austrian Schools, 341.
  English Public Schools, 488.
  Prussian Normal Schools, 399.
Dunnell, Mark H. Memoir, 783.
Dwight, Edmund, 100, 145.

Eaton, Nathaniel, 404.
Edinburgh High School, 403.
Edson, Henry R., Memoir, 756.
Education, a State Duty, 272.
Education, nature and value of, 33.
  Physical, 34, 499.
  Intellectual, 40.
  Moral, 48.
  Æsthetical, 47, 544.
Educational Biography, 141, 430, 593.
Edwards, Richard, Memoir and Portrait, 162.
  Normal Schools in the U. S., 270.
Elementary Schools in Austria, 8.
  Lombardy and Venice, 689.
  Rome, 698.
  Sardinia, 694.
  Sweden, 639.
  Tuscany, 697.
Elizabeth, Queen, Visit to St. Mary's College, 524
Elyot, Sir Thomas, Memoir, 462.
  The Governour, 465.
  Scarcity of good Schoolmasters, 466.
  Music—Painting—Carving, 467.
  Poetry and Oratory, 468.
  Muscular Exercise, 490.
  Walking—Running, 491.
  Swimming—Riding—Hunting, 492.
  Dancing, 494.
Emerson, G. B., Memorial on Normal Schools, 88

the Public Schools of, 501, 667.
Classics, how studied, 559.
Home Training, 433.
Language and Literature, 555.
d, H., 543.
am, 555.
I. N., 641.
, F. A., 559, 562.
. S., 568.
Pedagogy, Treatises on, 473.
ts, 473.
475.
, Letters to Dean Colet, 659, 661.
ft of Dean Colet, 665.
Version of Colet's Institute, 673.
s for the use of St. Paul's School 675.
y of the Teacher's Calling, 679.
line of Boys, 681.
Conversation, 681.
. 37.
on, St. Mary's College, 594.
ul's School, 685.

684, 530.
Oran, Memoir and Portrait, 750.
l Love, in Discipline, 681.
Education, 59.
, 9.
Education, 137.
iscences of, 138.
Teachers in California, 631.
121.
ohn, 657.
in English Public Schools, 530, 684.
Educational Associations, 381.
r Classes, 527, 683.
ools and American Civilization, 296, 301.
ool, original meaning of, 105, 311, 411.
ster in 1645, 106.
ry, 311.
s Academy, 411.
an Schools, 19.
n's Education, 241, 293.

Henry, 515.
y, S., Memoir and Portrait, 601.
St. Mary's College, 522.
work for Teachers, 32, 742.
Educational Associations, 121.
ers' Society in 1831, 350.
Association, 360.
by, fifty years ago, 739.
deas of, 43.
y in Prussian Normal Schools, 308.
, study of, 685.
glected and vicious, how cared for, 652.
rial School for, 652.
fifty years ago, 740.
s of, 48.
, W. S., 514.
w, Isaac F., Memoir and Portrait, 387.
ng Body in English Public Schools, 594, 683.
ph, 577.
n of Schools, 350, 636.
r, 594, 646, 683.
ns Instruction, 105, 311
tudy of, 658, 662, 668.
S. S., 229, 245.
tional Duties of the Hour, 229.
t on Object Teaching, 245.
, William, 663.
chard—a kind master, 440.
ium in Austria, 609.
ial Journal, 623.
tic exercises, 340, 399.

R., Memoir, 146.
illard, reminiscences of schools, 127.
nd, C., New England Academies, 403.
t, John, Memoir, 602.
Thomas H., Memoir, 608.

Health, 742.
Hedges, Nathan, Memoir, 737.
Reminiscences of Schools, 738.
Henkle, W. D., Memoir and Portrait, 432.
Hess, Prussian and Austrian Schools, 612.
High Schools, 348.
History and Geography, 397.
Holidays, Saints Days, 687.
Holbrook, Josiah, 144.
Homes, 331, 335, 656.
Hoss, G. W., Memoir, 775.
Hopkins, Edward, 407.
Horace, 220.
Hot-water Furnaces, 713.
Howard, General, on Education of Freedmen, 241, 295.
Hubbs, Paul K., Memoir, 626.
Hurty, Josiah, Memoir, 776

Ignorantelli, 698.
Illinois Educational Associations, 149.
State Lyceum in 1828, 149.
Ladies' Education Society, 149, 171.
Educational Convention in 1833, 150.
State Education Society, 1841, 150.
Teachers' Convention and Institute in 1846, 153.
State Teachers' Institute, 156.
State Teachers' Association, 156.
Imagination, 48.
Impositions, as punishment, 53.
Indian Element in South America, 70.
Indiana Educational Associations, 765.
Association for School Improvement in 1833, 765.
Convention of 1841, 766.
State Educational Society in 1848, 767.
State Teachers' Association, 1850, 767.
Annual Meetings, 767.
Biographical Sketches of Presidents, 775.
Industrial Instruction, 13, 488, 654.
Industrial Home for Vicious Girls, 652.
Instruction for a Christian Man, 671.
Intellectual Education, 40.
Earliest Development, 41, 245.
Knowledge of Things, 41, 247, 252.
Number—Size—Distance, 42.
Form—Geography, 43.
Time—History, 46.
Imagination—Poetry, 47.
Language—Memory, 247, 250.
Iowa Educational Association, 745.
State Association, 745.
Educational Biography, 749.
Italy, Public Instruction, 680.

Jacksonville (Ill.) Ladies' Education Society, 170.
Jesuit Schools in Austria, 609.
Characteristic Excellencies, 610.
Objections to, 611.
Jewish Schools in Austria, 11, 21.
Johnson, Christopher, 505.
Joseph I. and Austrian Schools, 610, 613.
Julius, Dr., on Prussian Teachers' Seminaries, 89.

Kansas State Teachers' Association, 385.
Educational Biography, 387.
Ken, Thomas, 511.
Kendall, A., author of Kentucky School Report, 352.
Kentucky Educational Associations, 353.
Louisville Teachers' Association, 357.
Mechanics' Institute in 1829, 352, 142.
Lexington Teachers' Association, 355.
State Teachers' Association, 355.
Keeman, 622.
Knight, L., Life of John Colet, 657.
History of St. Paul's School, 667.
Knowledge and Wisdom, 225.

Lalor, John, Prize Essay on Education, 33.
Lancaster (Mass.,) Industrial School for Girls, 652.
Landor, W. S., cited, 435.
Language, Science of, 81.
Study of, 247, 646, 340.

Language in Prussian Normal Schools, 397.
Latin Composition, 217.
Latymer, William, 657.
Laurel, symbol of a literary degree, 668.
Leicester Academy, 413.
Leverrier and Arago, 534.
Lexington Normal School, 104.
Libraries for the people, 536.
Light, to School Rooms, 704.
Lily, William, 670.
Linanoer, 668.
Lincoln, A., cited, 285.
Logic, in composition, 646.
Lombardy, school system, 689.
Long, William of Wykeham, 501.
Longstreet, Judge, Georgia Scenes, 121.
Lord, A. D., Memoir and Portrait, 607.
Louisiana Educational Associations, 382.
Lowth, R., cited, 499.
Lyceum in Italy, 692.

Maine Educational Associations, 777.
  Bowdoin College Teachers' Association, 777.
  Penobscot Association, 777.
  State Conventions, 777.
  State Teachers' Association, 780.
    Proceedings of Annual Meetings, 780.
    Biography of Presidents, 783.
Mann, Horace, 184, 536.
  Report on Normal Schools of Mass., 100.
Map-holder, 576.
March, F. A., Philological Study of English Language, 562.
Maria Theresa, and Austrian Schools, 8, 611.
Marion, General, on Free Schools, 117.
Martini, philosophical course, 612, 614
Marvin, John G., 626.
Marx, Gratian, 613.
Maryland Educational Associations, 377.
Mason, Jeremiah, 331.
Massachusetts Academies and Classical School 416.
  Legislation respecting schools, 415, 454.
  Normal Schools, 100, 449.
  Reform School for Vicious Girls, 652.
  School Houses, 701.
Mather's R., Catechism, 108.
May, Primary School House in Boston, 701.
May, Samuel J., educational reminiscences, 141.
  Influence of School Fund, 142
McCarty, Henry D., Memoir, 388.
Mechanic Arts, Schools of, 591.
Memorial on Normal School, 86, 92.
Mercers' Company, and St. Paul's School, 683.
Messener, Joseph, 9.
Memoirs.
  Abbott, G. D., 600.
  Andrews, J. W., 605.
  Andrews, Lorin, 604.
  Alcott, A. Bronson, 130.
  Benton, A. R., 775.
  Blewitt, B. T., 431.
  Burton, Warren, 430.
  Cadwell, C., 108.
  Coffin, J. H. C., 784.
  Colet John, 657.
  Cross, Moses K., 749.
  Crosby David, 763.
  Day, Jeremiah, 126.
  Dunnell, Mark H., 783.
  Edson, H. K., 750.
  Elyot, Sir Thomas, 483.
  Galloway, S., 601.
  Hall, S. R., 146.
  Hall, Willard, 127.
  Harvey, T. H., 608.
  Henkle, W. D., 432.
  Hedges, N., 737.
  Hermann, Francis, 22.
  Hoss, G. W., 775.
  Hovey, C. E., 165.
  Hurty, Josiah, 776.
Memoirs.—Hubbs, Paul K., 626.
  Lilly, William, 669.
  Lord, A. D., 607.
  Long, William, 497.
  Marvin, J. G., 626.
  May, S. J., 141.
  McCarty, Henry D., 388.
  Moulder, A. J., 627.
  Moody, Samuel, 409.
  Niebuhr, G. B., 215.
  Peers, B. O., 147.
  Pelton, J. C., 626.
  Potter, A., 599.
  Powell, W. H., 165
  Ray, Joseph, 603.
  Richard, C. S., 764.
  Rytwise, J., 662.
  Sams, I., 602.
  Sanborn, E. D., 762.
  Sawyer, H. E., 763
  Sarmiento, D. F., 503.
  Schubert, F., 22.
  Sleath, 681.
  Strehal, John, 22.
  Swett, John, 790.
  Tenney, Jonathan, 761.
  Vetrier, J., 665.
  Vitellius, C., 669
  Warton, J., 511.
  Wells, F. D., 749.
  Wells, W. H., 166.
  Weston, E. P., 784.
  White, E. E., 606.
  Whitington, R., 668.
  William of Wykeham, 497.
  Woodbridge, W., 136.
Millersville, (Penn.,) Normal School, 198.
Miscellaneous Reading, 222.
Missouri Educational Associations, 363.
  State Teachers' Association, 366.
Moberly George, 525.
Model Primary School House, 711.
Monitorial system, 529.
Moral character, formation of, 323.
Morality, meaning of, in Austrian Schools, 613.
Moral Education, 48, 323.
  Mothers, influence on, 48.
  Love to God and Man 49.
  Truth, 51, 335.
  Appetites, 53, 55, 329.
  Temper—Courage—Fear, 57, 335.
  Praise—Vanity, 61.
  Kindness—Courtesy—Purity, 339.
  Public spirit, 336.
Montt, Don Manuel, 595.
More, Sir Thomas, 662, 681.
Mott's ventilating stove, 590
Moulder, Andrew J., 627.
Moody, Samuel, 409.
Muscular exercise, 742.
Music, 39, 487.

National Associations, 227, 313, 391, 389.
National Bureau of Education, 177, 299.
National Education, 322.
Natural Science, 528, 543.
Nature, knowledge of, 398.
New England Academies, 403.
  Free Schools, Prussia, 79, 104, 108, 119.
New Hampshire Educational Associations, 751
  Cheshire County, 751.
  State Associations, 751.
  State Teachers' Associations, 752.
    Annual Meetings, 752.
    Biographical Sketches of Presidents, 761.
New Haven Hopkins Grammar School, 407.
New Jersey Educational Association, 729.
  State Association and Lyceum, 729.
  Newark Educational Society, 731.
  Essex County Association, 731.
  Teachers' Institute, 732.

N. Jersey, Biographical Sketches of Presidents, 737.
Nicholas, John, 510.
Niebuhr, G. B., Memoir, 215.
  Letter on Philological Study, 216.
Normal Schools, 75, 77, 86, 92, 271.
  Austria, 345, 352, 622.
  California, 628.
  Chili, 595.
  Massachusetts, 75, 100.
  New York—Oswego Training School, 209.
  Pennsylvania, 195.
  Prussia, 88.
  Vermont, 146.
  United States, 271.
North Carolina, state of education, 108.
  Educational Association, 361.
Number, 42.
Numeral frame, 578.

Obedience, 57.
Object Teaching, 245, 341.
Observation, habit of, 41.
Ohio State Teachers' Association, 601.
Olmsted, Hawley, 143.
Oratory, how acquired, 186.
  Value of, 190.
Oregon Educational Association, 382.
Oswego Normal School, 209, 265.
Oswego System of Object Teaching, 245, 265, 341.

Paers, B. O., Memoir, 147.
Peirce, B. K., Reformatory School for Girls, 652.
Pelton, J. C., 626.
Penmanship, 222, 340, 399.
Pennsylvania Normal Schools, 195, 205.
Pensions for Teachers, 338, 696.
Periodicals, Educational, 151, 597, 745, 766.
Philbrick, J. D., cited, 701.
  Plan of Primary School House, 701.
  Prescott Grammar School House, 715.
  Proper Size for Grammar School, 716.
Phillips Academy, 411.
Philosophical Course in Austria, 619
Philological Study, 216, 559.
Physical Education, 34, 490, 542.
  Food—Air, 35, 520.
  Cleanliness, 36.
  Exercise, 37, 491.
Piarists, 8, 610.
Pickard, G. L., on Object Teaching, 259.
Pilgrim's Progress, lesson in, 562.
Plaster, black wall, directions for, 575.
Playground, 36.
Poetry, taste for, to be cultivated, 47.
Poor Scholars, at Winchester School, 508.
Porter, S., on Study of English Language, 568.
Portraits, Abbott, G. D., 600.
  Andrews, I. W., 605.
  Bateman, Newton, 167.
  Blewett, Benjamin T., 431.
  Edwards, Richard, 168.
  Faville, Oran, 750.
  Galloway, Samuel, 601.
  Goodnow, Isaac F., 386.
  Henkle, William D., 432.
  Lord, A. D., 607.
  McCarty, H. D., 388.
  Peckham, Isaiah, 743.
  Potter, Alonzo, 1.
  Ray, Joseph, 603.
  Sarmiento, D. F., 593.
  Sawyer, Henry E., 763.
  Standish, J. V. N., 165.
  Swett, John, 790.
  Wells, David F., 749.
  Weston, Edward P., 783.
Post Graduate Course, 558.
Potter, Alonzo, Memoir and Portrait, 599.
Powell, W. H., Memoir, 165.
Praise in Moral Education, 61.
Prefects in St. Mary's College, 517, 529.
Prescott Grammar School House in Boston, 715.
Priestly Dr., motto on teaching, 114.
Primary School System, Austria, 8, 22.
  Lombardy, 690.
  Naples, 699.
  Rome, 698.
  Sardinia, 694.
  Sweden, 639.
  Tuscany, 697
  Venetia, 690.
Primary School House, 711.
Private Education and Public Schools, 429.
Private Schools in Austria, 343.
Prizes in English Public Schools, 529, 685.
Promotion in St. Mary's College, 529.
  St. Paul's School, 685.
Prussian Normal Schools, 39.
  Regulation of 1854, 395.
Public Schools of England, 501, 667.
Pulpiteers in St. Mary's College, 517.

Randall, G. P., Plans of School Houses, 715.
Raumer, F. V., 689, 694.
Ray, Joseph, Memoir and Portrait, 603.
Reading, advice on, 139.
  Carlyle, 191.
Reading aloud, 39.
Reading in schools fifty years ago, 739.
Read and write, ability to, 67, 117, 120, 173.
Reality teaching, 258.
Recreations in Public Schools, 494, 522, 686.
Rebellion in Winchester School, 512.
Reformatory Schools, 628, 652.
Regularity of attendance, 342.
Religion, 48, 395.
Religious Instructions and Observances, 397, 531, 687.
Reminiscences of school-days, 105.
  Alcott, A. Bronson, 130.
  Beecher, Henry W., 135.
  Caldwell, C., 109.
  Day, Jeremiah, 126.
  Hall, Willard, 127.
  Hedge, Nathan, 738.
  Harris, Dr., 108.
  Longstreet, Judge, 121.
  Woodbridge, W., 137.
Remissionis dies, or Remedies at Winchester, 518.
Republican Government and universal Education, 180, 229, 290, 457.
Richard, Cyrus S., Memoir, 764.
Rickoff, A. J., National Bureau of Education, 209.
Rod in discipline, 44, 107, 686.
Rome, city of, 698.
Ross, J. L., School Furniture, 713, 717.
Rottenham, labors in Austria, 615.
Routine in teaching, 236.
Rudimenta Grammaticus of St. Paul, 670.
Ruffner, Henry, ignorance in Virginia, 174.
Running, wrestling, 491.
Rytwise, John, 682.

Saints-days, or Holidays, 518.
Salaries of Teachers, California, 630.
  St. Mary's College, 526.
  St. Paul's School, 683.
Sams, Isaac, Memoir, 602.
San Juan, educational progress, 537.
San Michael Asylum at Rome, 698.
Sanborn, E. D., Memoir, 762.
Sardinia, public instruction, 694.
Sarmiento, D. F., Memoir and Portrait, 593.
  Dignity of the Schoolmaster's Work, 65
  Lessons for South America, 533.
  Model School, 598.
Sawyer, H. E., Memoir and Portrait, 763.
Scenery, influence of, 332.
Scholarships, proposed form of, 447.
School Architecture, 213, 569, 700.
  Bridgewater Normal School, 465.
  Boston Primary School, 700.
  Boston Grammar School, 715.
  Boston School Furniture, 720.
  Framingham Normal School, 469

Sch. Architecture, Oswego Training School, 209, 213.
Salem Normal School, 476.
St. Mary's College, 576.
St. Paul's School, 667.
Town's Octagonal Plan, 725.
School Books, 139, 347.
School Funds, 142, 348, 626.
School Houses as they were, 108, 127.
Alcott, A. Bronson, 130.
Beecher, H. Ward, 135.
School Management in Prussia, 395.
Schoolmaster's Work, 71.
School Money, 133, 636, 366.
School Month, 637.
Scob, in Winchester dialect, 510, 525.
Scolapi, Padri, in Rome, 698.
Scrutiny, or prefect questioning, 581.
Seabrook, G. W., education in South Carolina, 120.
Sears, Barnas, on Normal Schools, 571.
Seminaries for Teachers, 77. *See* Normal Schools.
Sentence making, 645.
Servitors, in Public Schools and Colleges, 520.
Sicilies, Kingdom of the Two, 669.
Singing, 39.
Size of School Houses, 715.
Sleath, Dr., 681.
Smith, Sidney, as a school boy, 513.
Social Science Association, 301.
Solomon's Rule, 441.
Sophomore Exhibition in Vermont University, 557.
Songs of Childhood, 40.
South America, 69.
South Carolina, 117, 120.
Southey, Robert, 223, 433.
Spelling, 129, 135.
Speusippus' method of enticing scholars, 681.
Spingler Institute, 600.
St. John's College, Maryland, charter, 549.
St. Mary's College, Winchester, 501.
St. Paul's School, London, 667.
Stoddard, J. F., 199.
Strabo, Jacobus, 609.
Studies and Conduct, 187, 215.
Brougham, Henry, 187.
Carlyle, Thomas, 191.
Niebuhr, G. B., 216.
Southey, Robert, 223.
Superintendents, Association of, 369.
Sweden, Public Instruction in, 639.
Swieten, 611.
Swett, John, Memoir and Portrait, 699, 790.
Report on school system of California, 695.
Swimming, 38, 491.

Taxation for schools, 629.
Teachers' Association, Austria, 22, 338.
Alabama, 375.
Arkansas, 381.
California, 785.
Delaware, 369.
District of Columbia, 360.
Georgia, 359.
Florida, 381.
Illinois, 149.
Indiana, 765.
Iowa, 746.
Kansas, 385.
Kentucky, 351.
Louisiana, 382.
Maine, 777.
Maryland, 377.
Missouri, 365.
New Hampshire, 751.
New Jersey, 729.
North Carolina, 361.
South Carolina, 361.
Tennessee, 357.
Texas, 372.
Virginia, 171.
West Virginia, 383.
Teachers' Council, 683.
Teachers' Diploma, 631, 637.
Teachers' Institutes, New Jersey, 732.
New Hampshire, 752.
Pennsylvania, 196.
Teaching, a science, 77, 260.
Profession of, 281.
Fifty years ago, 742.
Temper, 57.
Tennessee Educational Associations, 357.
Literary Institute in 1837, 367.
State Teachers' Association, 358
Tenney, Jonathan, Memoir, 761.
Texas Educational Conventions, 373.
Text Books in Austria, 347.
Thun, Count, and Gymnasial Reform, 621.
Ticknor Elisha, 75.
Tillinghast, Nicholas, on Normal Schools, 451.
Tillotson, cited, 681.
Time, 46.
Tixier, Jean, 445.
Todd Fund, 104.
Town School of New England, 105.
Town and Davis, Plan of School House, 725.
Trask, A. B., cited, 105.
Tuition Fees, 342, 411, 526
Dorchester Schools, 108.
Trivial Schools of Austria, 348.
Turner, J. B., Industrial Education, 153.
Tuscany, public schools of, 669.

United States, 229, 283.
Civil War and Education, 283.
Duties of the Hour, 229.
Education an Element of Reconstruction, 283.
National Bureau of Education, 177, 299.
National University, 308.
Appropriation to Agricultural Schools, 391.
Educational Associations, 311.
Universities, 692, 694.
Upham, Charles W., 417

Vacation, breaking up, 593.
Vanity in Children, 61.
Ventilation, 579.
Vergil, Polydore, 669.
Vermont, first Teachers Seminary, 74, 148.
Virginia Educational Associations, 172.
First Free School in, 311.
Vitellius, Cornelius, 669.
Vitrier, John, 665.

War, its lessons, 239, 275, 510.
Warming, principles to be regarded, 579.
Brown's Hot-water Furnace, 713.
Chilson's Furnace, 582, 588.
Culver's Furnace, 579.
Clark's Ventilating Stove, 716.
Mott's School stove, 590.
Warton, Joseph, and Winchester School, 511.
Washington, and National Education, 308.
Webster, Daniel, cited, 178.
Wells, David F., Memoir and Portrait, 749.
Wells, William H., Memoir, 166.
Westford, (Mass.,) 127.
Weston, E. P., Memoir and Portrait, 784
West Virginia, Educational Associations.
Whipping, 107, 681, 686.
White, E. E., Memoir, 606.
National Bureau of Education, 177.
Whitington, Robert, 668.
Wickersham, J. P., National Reconstruction, 282.
Winchester, Public School of, 501.
Winchester College Alarm Clock, 590.
Wrestling, Running, Hunting, 491.
Writing in study of English, 560.
Women in South America, inability to read, 536.
Wykeham, William of, 497.

Yeomen, English, library and reading of, 435.

CASEMFIN

Stanford University Libraries

3 6105 006 548 817